THE STORY OF LOUISIANA

WILLIAM O. SCROGGS

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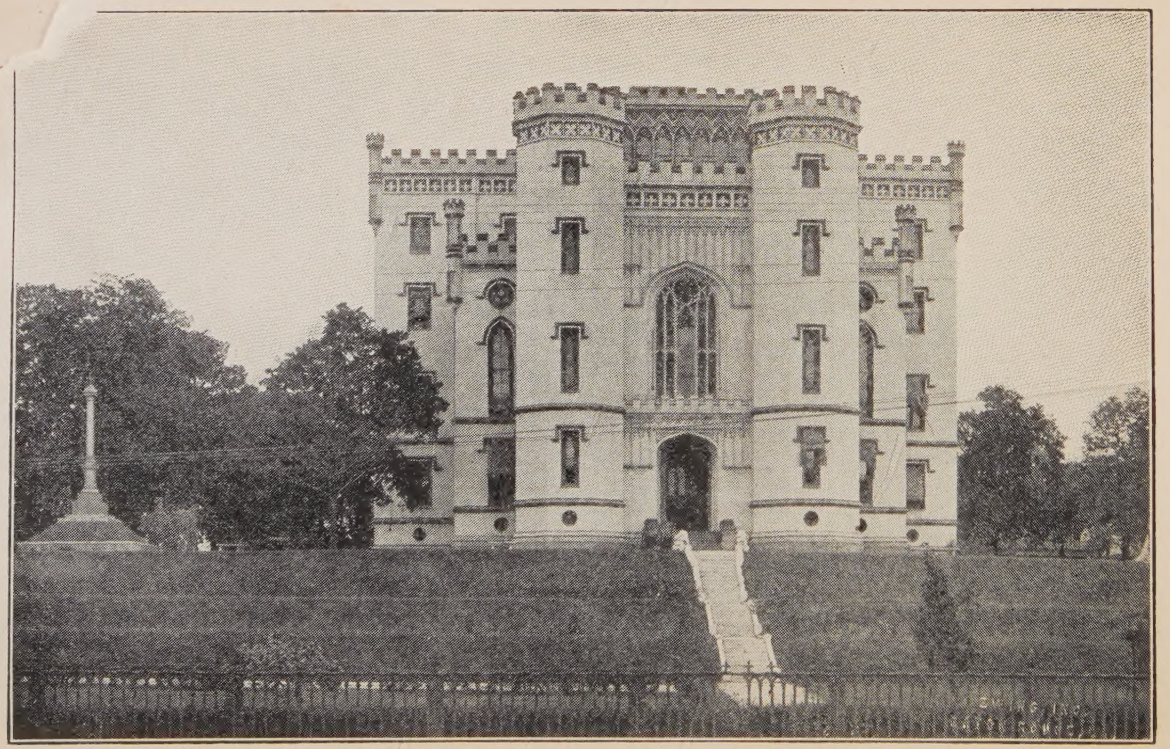

The State Capitol at Baton Rouge

THE STORY OF LOUISIANA

A TEXT-BOOK FOR SCHOOLS

By

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Illustrated

INDIANAPOLIS
THE BOBBS-MERRILL COMPANY
PUBLISHERS

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Printed in the United States of America

FOREWORD

The purpose kept in view in the writing of this text has been to give an accurate and balanced narrative and interpretation of the salient facts of the history of Louisiana in language that will be readily understood by children in the grades. So far as practicable the story has been told in biographical fashion. Even in describing economic developments, such as the coming of the steamboat on the rivers of Louisiana and the introduction of the cultivation of cotton and sugar cane, the account has been linked with events in the lives of individuals well known to history, and it is believed that this method of treatment will serve to increase the pupil's interest.

No attempt has been made to gloss over unpleasant details if they are important. Stories of the famines, floods and pestilence of bygone days do not make cheerful reading, but it is well for the young folk of to-day to know something of the hardships which have been endured by those who lived before them, so that they may the better appreciate the advantages and opportunities of their own generation.

To facilitate instruction, the text has been abundantly supplied with maps. The teacher will find their use indispensable when undertaking to make clear the different significance of the term "Louisiana" in the French, Spanish and American periods. It is suggested that when the class reaches the chapter on Statehood the pupils be required to review these changes, so that they can trace the successive steps whereby the original Louisiana was finally brought down to the limits of the present state.

In the preparation of this work the author has had access to the two largest libraries in the country, and has thus been able to draw freely from both source materials and secondary works. To make full acknowledgment of his indebtedness he would have to mention practically every one who has made any important contribution to historical literature dealing with Louisiana. While this is obviously impracticable, the author feels that he would be remiss if he did not record his obligation to the road-breaking work of Louisiana's foremost historian, Charles Gayarré, which after more than half a century still stands as a model and guide for others in the matter of both scholarship and literary merit. Other writers to whom he feels under peculiar obligation are Miss Grace King, Alcée Fortier, Albert Phelps, J. R. Ficklen, Pierce Butler and Walter L. Fleming.

While the author has drawn freely from the works of these and other writers, he feels that his best preparation for this work has been a residence of ten pleasant years in Louisiana. This has given him a background of general knowledge and a sympathetic understanding of conditions that he could never have gained by a mere perusal of books.

W. O. S.

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THE STORY OF LOUISIANA

I

THE SPANISH VISITORS

In the year 1492 Christopher Columbus landed on a small tropical island lying to the south and east of our great continent and solemnly took possession of the newly discovered lands in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella of

Columbus before Isabella

Spain, the rulers in whose service he had sailed over the unknown western seas. By this act of the great explorer the Spanish monarchs got a first claim to the lands that later were found to be an entirely new world, quite different from the India that Columbus thought he had reached. It was not till fifteen years after Columbus's voyage that this New World was first called America. The Spanish rulers lost no time in sending other expeditions to explore their new dominions and to search for gold, silver and other riches that might lie there. Columbus himself made three

Landing of Columbus

more voyages to America, but in none of these did he sail far enough north to reach any part of what is now the United States.

We do not know what European explorer first laid eyes on lands that lie within our own country, nor can we be certain who was the first white man to set foot on soil in what is now the state of Louisiana. There is every reason to believe, however, that in each of these instances the first newcomer was one of the many Spanish adventurers who flocked to the West Indies and to Mexico and South America in the years following the discoveries of Columbus.

For a long time it was supposed that Ponce de Leon, who made a voyage to Florida in search of the "Fountain of Youth," was the first white man to land within territory now part of the United States, but it has been shown that other explorers whose names have been lost to history must have preceded him in visiting the land which he called Florida. While De Leon's landing in Florida on Easter Sunday in 1513 is the earliest recorded entrance of any European within the present limits of the United States, it is now known that some navigator sailed around Florida at least twelve years before that visit.

The Unknown Visitor.—Some years ago an ancient map, made in 1502, was found. This shows the outline of the North American Continent according to men's ideas just ten years after the discovery of the New World. One of its most interesting features is the crude tracing of a strip of land running southward out into the sea and apparently intended by the maker of the map to represent what we now call the peninsula of Florida. Another map, made in 1507, also shows this peninsula. These two bits of evidence seem to prove that some explorer had sailed around Florida and into the Gulf of Mexico without leaving us any written record of his voyage. It is not known whether this sailor went far enough west on this voyage to view any part of what we now call Louisiana.

De Narvaez.—In 1519, six years after Ponce de Leon's visit to Florida, another Spanish navigator, Alonzo de Pineda, set out from the West Indies to explore the Gulf of Mexico. As he sailed along the northern coast he found what seemed to be the mouth of a large river, and he called it the River of the Holy Spirit. This was either the Mississippi or Mobile Bay, probably the latter. Nine years later still another expedition was fitted out to explore the regions lying north of the gulf. It set out from Cuba under the leadership of Panfilo de Narvaez, who landed in Florida with three hundred men and forty horses. The chief purpose of this expedition was to convert the Indians to Christianity, but soon after landing the Spaniards seemed to forget all about their missionary duties and marched into the country in search of gold, after leaving word for their ships to wait for them at another point on the coast. They had heard of a rich city called Apalache lying not far away, and this had excited their greed. They saw no signs of gold, and when their food gave out they began to plunder the Indians instead of trying to make Christians out of them. They treated the natives very cruelly. De Narvaez ordered his men to burn the bodies of the Indian dead because he suspected that the red men worshipped them, and he looked upon such a custom as idolatry. This maddened the Indians, who attacked the invaders and drove them into the swamps and marshes. To save themselves from starvation the Spaniards were forced to eat some of their starving horses.

Finally they stumbled upon Apalache, but instead of its being a city rich in gold it proved to be a village of several dozen miserable huts, which the Indians abandoned on the approach of the white men. De Narvaez and his men were glad to find it, however, because it contained some corn and other food. While they were satisfying their hunger the savages stole up and set fire to the huts. De Narvaez held out a few weeks longer in this region and kept his men busy

hunting for gold. At length they gave up hope and began their weary march back to the coast through tangled wood and miry swamp, with the revengeful Indians always at their heels. They reached the gulf not far from the site of the present city of Pensacola, leaving behind fifty of their number dead.

A North American Indian in War Dress

The ships which were to await them at this spot were nowhere to be seen. They ate their remaining horses, gathered shell fish on the beach, and finally decided to build boats and put to sea. With reeds and horse skins they made a blacksmith's bellows and hammered out their stirrups, spurs and crossbows into axes and nails. With these crude implements they cut and put together timbers for five boats. Then they made ropes of the manes and tails of their horses, sails of their shirts, and water flasks of the skins of the horses' legs.

Cabeza de Vaca.—The Spaniards then embarked and sailed westward, planning to reach their settlements in Mexico. A few days later, as they worked along the coast, they noted a mighty river whose strong current carried them far from the shore. This was the Mississippi. They drank some of its fresh water. The current swept De Narvaez's boat and another out to sea, and they were lost. Two

of the remaining boats were driven by winds upon the coast of what is now eastern Louisiana or western Texas, and those who survived the wreck were made captive by the Indians. What became of the fifth boat is not known. Four of the survivors, one of whom was Cabeza de Vaca, treasurer of the expedition, and another of whom was a negro known to the Spaniards as Estevan (Stephen), finally escaped from their captors, and having learned the

How De Narvaez and Cabeza de Vaca Saw the Mississippi

language and customs of the native tribes they pretended to be medicine men and wandered for years across the country, always going westward, till at length they reached the Spanish settlements on the Gulf of California, some two thousand miles from their starting point. Here they were kindly received and were conducted to Mexico City.

These were the first white men to cross the North American Continent through territory within the boundaries of the present United States. Cabeza de Vaca returned to

Spain and told wonderful stories of what he had seen in the interior and even more wonderful tales of things which the Indians had told him but which he had not seen with his own eyes. Among other things he mentioned marvelous cities with stone houses six stories in height. We now know that these were nothing but the villages of the Pueblo Indians or of the cliff-dwellers, but to the men in Spain this seemed to mean that treasures such as Cortez had found in Mexico and Pizarro had seized in Peru were to be had elsewhere in America.

De Vaca's experience proved that the continent was much larger than the Spaniards had supposed it to be. This made Spanish adventurers all the more certain that it must contain somewhere in its wide area vast quantities of gold, only waiting for white men to come and claim it. It was such ideas that led another Spanish explorer to fit out an expedition to hunt for gold within the limits of what is now the United States. This was Hernando de Soto. His followers, as we shall see, in the course of their wanderings eventually set foot on soil that lies within the state of Louisiana, and although others may have preceded them there, they were the first visitors of whom we have any certain record.

QUESTIONS

1. How did Spain get a first claim to the New World?
2. Was Ponce de Leon the first European to see Florida?
3. What knowledge of the exploration of Florida and the Gulf of Mexico do we get from early maps?
4. Who was Pineda, and what did he discover in the Gulf of Mexico?
5. What was the purpose of the expedition of Panfilo de Narvaez?
6. What were its results?
7. Who was Cabeza de Vaca, and what did he accomplish?
8. Give two reasons why his wanderings are of interest in Louisiana history.

II

DE SOTO FINDS THE GREAT RIVER

De Soto had served in Peru under the great Spanish explorer and conqueror, Pizarro. In their search for gold in that part of the world the Spaniards had met with success beyond their wildest dreams, and De Soto, after receiving his share of the treasure plundered from the native rulers, returned to Spain rich and famous. He gained the favor of the Spanish king, married a Spanish noblewoman, and might have spent the rest of his days in peace and comfort. About this time, however, Cabeza de Vaca returned to Spain, worn, haggard, and penniless after his many hardships in the American wilderness. The stories which he told greatly interested De Soto and made him eager to gain further wealth and glory in "the lands of Florida," as the Spaniards then called all the country north of Mexico.

So sure was De Soto of success in his plan that he asked the king for permission to conquer Florida at his own expense. The king gave his consent and made De Soto governor of Florida and Cuba, with the right to take possession of all the lands in which Cabeza de Vaca had spent his years of wandering. De Vaca's stories of the New World had been published, and many who had read them were eager to seek their fortunes in the little known parts of America. When De Soto announced his plans, therefore, he had no trouble in getting plenty of followers. He chose between six hundred and seven hundred of the finest among those who offered themselves, sold most of his property, and then fitted out four ships and sailed for Cuba.

De Soto in Florida.—A whole year was spent in Cuba making further preparations for the expedition on the continent. De Soto seems to have overlooked nothing that would make his venture a success. When all was ready he embarked at Havana for Florida, and on May 12, 1539, he

landed at Tampa Bay. It was an imposing force that he commanded. Nothing like it had ever before been seen in that part of the world. The soldiers wore glittering steel helmets and breastplates. One company was equipped with firearms, and the others carried spears, swords and crossbows. There were miners to dig the gold, chemists to refine it, and skilled workmen to shape the precious metal into the desired forms. Over a hundred men were provided with horses, which were unknown in America before the coming of the white men. De Soto also brought along a great drove of swine to supply his followers with meat, and there were also bloodhounds to capture any Indians who might escape after he had enslaved them.

When all his outfit had been landed De Soto sent his ships away so that his men would not think of retreat. Then the armed men in brilliant array began their northward march. They made slow progress through the swamps and dense forests of Florida; the horses sank deep in the mire, and the men on foot found it hard going through tangled bushes and over fallen trees. They mistreated the natives and soon had them for bitter enemies. At every Indian village De Soto demanded corn for his men and horses, and even compelled some of the natives to carry his baggage on to the next village. When one Indian guide declared that he knew of no place where gold was to be found De Soto ordered him burned alive.

After a few days in the woods the Spaniards were startled to see a man browned by the sun and wearing no more clothing than an Indian coming toward them, making the sign of the cross to show that he was a Christian, and at the same time crying "Sevilla!" It was one of their countrymen named Juan Ortiz. He had been with the savages so long that he had almost forgotten his mother tongue. Years before he had come to Florida with Panfilo de Narvaez, but when his companions marched into the interior he had remained with the ships and was carried back to Cuba.

De Soto, Tampa Bay, Florida, 1539

Then he returned with another expedition sent by the governor of Cuba to search for De Narvaez and his followers and had been taken captive by the Indians. Ortiz made a valuable guide, as he knew several Indian dialects, and some of De Soto's Indian guides had proved very treacherous.

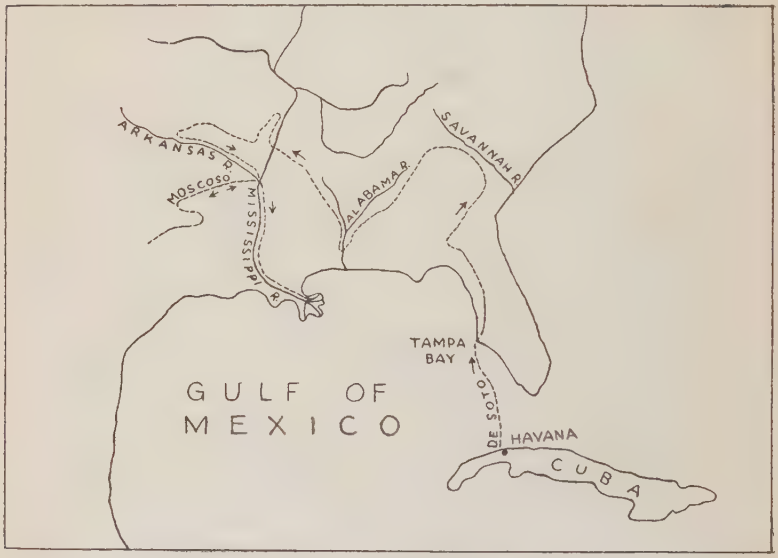
Searching for Gold.—De Soto kept on moving northward till he was near the upper limit of the present state of Georgia. All this time he was looking in vain for signs of gold, and the Indians, anxious to be rid of such unwelcome visitors, frequently told tales of great riches farther on, so that the Spaniards would hasten their departure. As this region seemed unpromising, De Soto turned southwest and continued till the Gulf of Mexico blocked his further progress, not far from where the city of Mobile now stands.

The baffled adventurer then turned northwest, and in April, 1541, reached the Mississippi River near the mouth of the Arkansas. The Spaniards spent nearly a month building boats that would take them and their hogs and horses across the stream. They spent the following winter in what is now Arkansas. The weather was very cold, and they suffered severely. When spring came De Soto, exhausted with his three years of fruitless wanderings and hardship in the wilderness, decided to follow the river to the gulf. He and his men had now forgotten all about gold-hunting and cared only about finding their way back to civilization. They went as far south as the mouth of the Red River, and there De Soto was seized with a fever and died. Two hundred and fifty of his men had already died of wounds and disease or from the fearful hardships of the march through the wilderness.

Burial of De Soto.—His followers buried him secretly so as to conceal the fact of his death from the Indians. They were afraid that if the savages found out that the leader was dead they might make an attack on the white men. Then in the middle of the night the body was dug up and placed in the hollow trunk of a tree, which was weighted

with sand and sunk beneath the waters of the Great River he had discovered.

Shortly before his death De Soto turned his command over to one of his most trusted officers, Luis de Moscoso. This officer decided to lead the survivors to Mexico by land, but the distance and the dangers proved too great, and



How De Soto Found the Great River

they retraced their steps to the Mississippi, north of De Soto's burial place. There the Spaniards spent the winter building boats as best they could, somewhat as De Narvaez's men had done on the gulf coast. They killed all their hogs and horses and dried the meat in the sun. Then they raided Indian villages for corn. Early in the summer, four years after landing in such splendor in Tampa Bay, three hundred and seventy-two survivors, now worn men with shaggy hair and beards, and clad in rags and the skins of animals, floated down the Mississippi to the gulf, and then worked

along the coast till they reached the Spanish settlements in Mexico. Sixty-one of them died on the way.

De Soto's visit to the Mississippi gives us the first instance, of which we can be absolutely sure, of white men setting foot within the borders of the present state of Louisiana. He was the first real explorer of the Mississippi River. A few others, as has already been shown, may have seen the river before he did, but they had no idea of its

De Soto Discovering the Mississippi

size and importance. While this expedition failed to achieve its purpose of finding gold, it was not without results. It showed that the country traversed by De Soto was not rich in precious metals like some parts of Mexico and South America and caused the Spaniards to give most of their attention to these latter regions. As a result, the lower Mississippi Valley remained undisturbed by further visits from the white man for nearly a century and a half, or for a period equal to that from George Washington's days down to our own time.

Meanwhile the knowledge of the Great River gained

through this visit of the Spaniards was not forgotten, but another nation than Spain was finally to take up and complete the work of exploration that De Soto had begun.

QUESTIONS

1. How did De Soto gain his wealth and his early fame?
2. What caused him to desire to return to the New World?
3. Describe his preparations.
4. What did the Spaniards of De Soto's time mean by "the lands of Florida"?
5. Sketch briefly the course of De Soto's movements from his landing at Tampa Bay till his death.
6. Take a map of the United States and point out on it the line of De Soto's journey.
7. What became of De Soto's followers who survived him?
8. What did his expedition actually accomplish?
9. Why is De Soto's adventure of importance in the history of Louisiana?

III

LA SALLE DESCENDS THE GREAT RIVER

To-day we do not think of Louisiana and Canada as being closely connected, but three hundred years ago, before the days of railways and steamships, and even before there were ordinary dirt roads in this country, it was easier to travel from the St. Lawrence River to the lower Mississippi Valley than it was to go from the Atlantic coast westward to the Ohio River. The Mississippi with its tributaries furnished a highway through the heart of the continent, whereas the dense forests and the high mountains that were encountered as a traveler went westward from the British settlements near the sea coast proved for a long time an almost impassable barrier to the migration of the colonists into the interior.

The "Woods Runners."—Under such conditions it was quite natural that the French settlers in Canada should be the first to push out to the west and south into the great Mississippi Valley. These settlers were different in many ways from the English who had come to Virginia and New England. The latter were mainly home-seekers. The Canadian settlements also had their home-builders, but the climate in that far northern region was not so well suited for agriculture, and many of the newcomers found that the fur trade with the Indians was more profitable by far than clearing away the woods and tilling the soil. Consequently there developed a peculiar type of Canadian who soon equalled even the Indian in the art of living in the woods. He made friends with the savages and dressed and lived very much as they did. He lived by hunting, trapping, and by trading with the Indians. Such activities carried him on far journeys into the forests, and

to the French he became known as a "woods runner," or *coureur de bois.*

The French settlements in Canada, therefore, did not become as strong and thickly populated as those of the English on the Atlantic seaboard, but at the same time the activities of the "woods runners" and also of the missionaries who came out in great numbers from France to convert the Indians to Christianity spread French influence over a much greater area than that in which the English were masters. It was through these explorers and priests that France succeeded in establishing claims to all the vast territory drained by the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi Rivers, and it was through their activities that Louisiana had its beginning. It was men from Canada, as we shall see, who first voyaged down the Mississippi to its mouth, who first thoroughly explored the lower Mississippi Valley, who planted the first permanent settlements in that region, and who first called the country Louisiana.

The "Great Water."—For many years after the French had established themselves in Canada they did not even suspect the existence of the Mississippi River. When their traders pushed farther and farther west and finally heard the Indians talking about the "Great Water" not far distant, they thought that the red men were referring to the Pacific Ocean, and they began to dream of finding a short route to India, just as Columbus had dreamed many years before. Canadian officials even wrote to the king's ministers in France and urged them to fit out an expedition to explore this new way to the Orient.

Robert Cavelier de La Salle.—Meanwhile there was one Canadian settler living near Montreal who had become especially interested in this Indian talk about the "Great Water." This was René Robert Cavelier, who, according to the custom of that time, became better known by the name of his estate, or seigniory, and therefore is designated in history as La Salle. He came of a well-to-do family in Rouen,

France, and was educated for the Jesuit priesthood. When about twenty-three years of age he decided that he was not fitted for a priestly calling and went to Canada. He at once became interested in the Indians and studied their customs and learned to speak a number of their dialects.

Robert Cavelier Sieur de La Salle

La Salle finally decided to make a search for the "Great Water," which he believed to be a stream flowing into the Pacific Ocean. No one in Canada at that time suspected that it was the same river that De Soto had stumbled upon farther south over a century before. In 1669 La Salle undertook a journey of exploration at his own expense in the belief that the great river would eventually enable him to reach China. He actually found a large stream flowing westward. This was the Ohio. He descended it for some distance, but not far enough to reach the Mississippi, into which it flows. For about three years La Salle kept up his exploring and trading in this region and then returned to Canada and tried to interest the officials in further exploration.

Marquette and Joliet.—Count Frontenac, the governor, lent a friendly ear to La Salle's plans, and in 1673 he showed his interest by sending Louis Joliet, a trader, and Father Marquette, a missionary, to find the great river and descend it to its mouth. They found the Mississippi, but went no farther down the stream than the mouth of the Arkansas River, as the Indians below this point were hostile. Their voyage was very important, however, because they discovered that the great river flowed south rather than west, as the Canadians had supposed.

As soon as La Salle learned the results of this discovery he was convinced that the river did not flow into the Pacific

Ocean but into the Gulf of Mexico. This caused him to work out a wholly new plan. The river was no longer, in his mind, something that offered a quicker way to reach China or India, but it was a splendid highway, binding together a vast and rich territory in which France might build a mighty colonial empire that should rival those already founded in the New World by Spain and England.

La Salle's views were accepted by Count Frontenac, but it was slower work to enlist the interest and help of the government in France. Finally, after two visits to France and four years of weary waiting, he obtained permission to explore the West at his own expense and the sole right to trade in buffalo hides in the region, a privilege which it was thought would aid him in meeting the cost of his undertaking.

Down the Mississippi.—La Salle started on his expedition in 1678, but rival traders, who were angered by his claim to the sole right of trade in the West, stirred up the Indians against him and spread discontent among his followers. A series of mishaps prevented him for three years from proceeding farther south than the Illinois River. He held firmly, however, to his plan for exploring this vast territory, and about this time he began calling it Louisiana, in honor of Louis XIV, the King of France. At length, after many heart-breaking delays, he set out early in 1682 down the Illinois River with twenty-two Frenchmen and thirty-one Indians, and in February they floated in their birch-bark canoes out upon the broad Mississippi.

Down this great stream they moved for many weeks. Not many Indians were seen along the banks, and most of them were friendly. La Salle always tried to gain the good will of the red men, and they were always ready to exchange food for the trinkets that the Frenchmen had brought along for the purpose. La Salle was especially interested at seeing a number of articles of European manufacture among the savages, and he assumed that they had been obtained

from other Indians who in turn had got them by trading with white men in the English colonies to the eastward.

When the French reached the territory of the Tensas Indians, in the northern part of what is now the state of Louisiana, La Salle sent presents to their chief, who then condescended to pay a visit to the leader of these strangers. Two hours before he arrived a master of ceremonies and six other Indians came and cleared the way over which he was to pass and placed a cane mat where he was to sit. The chief finally appeared wearing a fine white robe of woven mulberry bark. He was preceded by two men carrying fans made of white feathers and by two others carrying highly polished copper plates. It amused the explorers to see the ruler of a mere handful of people living in a few villages of miserable huts put on such grand airs, but they treated him with respect and won his friendship with further presents, which were probably the chief object of his visit.

Louis XIV, King of France

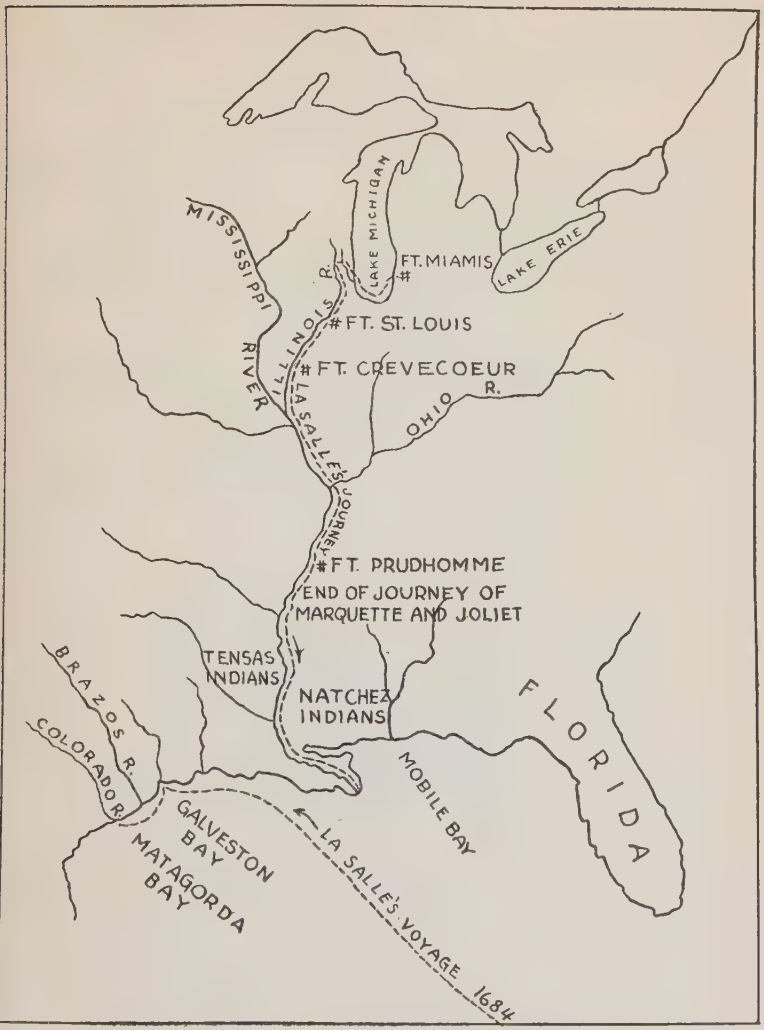
Visit to the Natchez.—On the next day the French reached the territory of the Natchez Indians, a powerful tribe, whose chief village stood near the site of the present city of Natchez. The chiefs of these Indians claimed to be descended directly from the sun, and the leader of the tribe was known as the Great Sun. The Frenchmen paid him a visit, and in the center of his village they raised a cross bearing the coat-of-arms of France as a token of their possession of the country. The Indians seemed highly pleased at this ceremony, but if they had known what it

really meant it is probable that their feelings would have been quite different.

Two days after the canoes passed the mouth of the Red River some unfriendly Indians discharged their arrows at a party of French who had gone ashore, but no damage was done. Four days later the explorers came to a point where the river split into three branches. La Salle took the western branch and sent other parties through the middle and eastern branches. Soon they all reached the gulf and reunited. Then on April 9, 1682, on a bit of high ground the French erected a cross and also a column bearing the arms of France and of its king, Louis XIV. The whole party then stood under arms and solemnly chanted the *Te Deum,* after which they fired several volleys with their clumsy guns and La Salle in a loud voice read a declaration of the right of King Louis to all the lands drained by the Great River.

Thus, without the loss of a single life La Salle had made vastly more important discoveries than either De Narvaez or De Soto, in whose expeditions hundreds of Spaniards and thousands of Indians perished. One hundred and forty years had passed since the survivors of De Soto's expedition had made their tedious journey down this stream to the gulf, and during all this time the lower Mississippi Valley had remained undisturbed by the white men.

Spain still claimed this region as part of Florida, and the English also asserted a vague claim to it as a part of Carolina. La Salle's explorations, however, gave France a better claim to the lower valley than that of either of the other countries. But if France was to make this claim good it was necessary for her to plant settlements in Louisiana and hold them against her jealous rivals. La Salle saw that his country would have to act quickly, or the fruits of his toil and hardship would be lost. He therefore hastened back to Canada, and on his way established Fort Prudhomme at Chickasaw Bluff, near the present boundary between



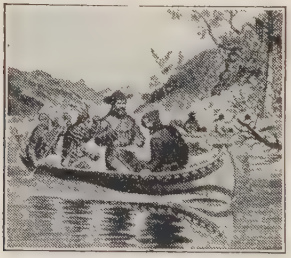
La Salle's Journey to the Gulf, and Final Voyage

Mississippi and Tennessee, and Fort St. Louis on the Illinois River. On reaching Quebec he found a new governor, La Barre, who showed no interest in the explorer's plans and

even treated him unkindly. There was nothing left for La Salle but to make another trip to France and plead his cause before the king and his ministers.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did the French settlers on the St. Lawrence River, rather than the English on the Atlantic coast, explore the Mississippi and its tributaries?
2. Who were the "woods runners"?
3. What did the Canadians think that the Indians meant when they talked about the "Great Water"?
4. How did La Salle come to discover the Ohio River?
5. Who were: Count Frontenac, Marquette, Joliet?
6. How did La Salle change his plans when he found that the Great River flowed south instead of west?
7. Explain the origin of the name "Louisiana."
8. Describe La Salle's voyage to the mouth of the Mississippi.



Father Marquette on His Trip Down the Mississippi

IV

FAILURE OF LA SALLE'S COLONY

When La Salle arrived in Paris and went before the royal ministers he asked for two hundred men to establish a colony near the mouth of the Mississippi and to drive the Spaniards from the northern shores of the Gulf of Mexico. This plan greatly interested the king, because Spain for many years had claimed that the Gulf of Mexico was her own private property and had denied ships of other nations the right to navigate it. On several occasions Spanish war vessels had seized French ships found in the gulf and had thrown their crews into prison. La Salle's proposal to drive the Spaniards from the northern coast of the gulf and to hold this region for France found great favor, therefore, with the king and his counselors.

Departure from France.—Four ships were fitted out for the voyage. On board were about four hundred persons, including soldiers, colonists, a few laborers and mechanics, and half a dozen priests; and on July 24, 1684, they sailed from Rochelle for the mouth of the Mississippi. La Salle had authority from the king to govern all the country between Lake Michigan and the Gulf of Mexico. His colonists were not a very desirable lot. Many of them had been gathered by force from among the beggars on the streets of Rochelle, and they were wholly unfitted for the hard life in the wild and unsettled regions of America. The soldiers were little if any better than the others. Joutel, one of La Salle's officers, said that the ships were "like Noah's ark, containing all sorts of animals." La Salle and Beaujeu, the naval officer commanding the ships, were soon on bad terms. Beaujeu did not wish to take orders from a lands-

man while at sea, and La Salle appears to have meddled in the handling of the ships, although he knew nothing of seamanship.

Much sickness developed in the overcrowded vessels during the voyage, and to add to La Salle's other troubles the Spaniards captured one of the vessels that was loaded with provisions and tools for the colony, just as the expedition was nearing Santo Domingo. The three remaining ships were held at this island till November, and for many weeks La Salle lay ill with fever. During this time many of his men deserted, and others died of tropical diseases. La Salle finally regained enough strength to resume the voyage. Two years before, when he was at the mouth of the Mississippi, he had instruments for finding the latitude but not the longitude. Hence he knew how far north he would have to sail, but not how far west, in order to find the river. His ship reached the coast near Atchafalaya Bay, about one hundred miles west of the Mississippi, and he mistook this for Apalachee Bay, Florida, which is three hundred miles east of that river.

From an old print

La Salle's Expedition Landing at Matagorda Bay

Fail to Find the River. — Shortly after they reached the gulf coast, on New Year's day, 1685, a heavy fog came down and separated Beaujeu's ship from the others. When it lifted La Salle sailed westward and found the missing vessel, but dur-

ing all this time he was going farther and farther away from the river that he was seeking. Finally off Matagorda Bay, in the present state of Texas, La Salle thought that he had found the entrance to the Mississippi. The first of the ships to attempt to enter struck a reef and sank, causing the loss of still more supplies. The shores of the bay were barren stretches of sand, with no grass, trees, or good water at hand. On these dreary beaches the colonists and soldiers were landed. They put up tents and sheds, and later the colony was moved some distance inland to the Lavaca River, which flows into Matagorda Bay. There under La Salle's direction the men worked feverishly, building houses of logs cast ashore by the tides.

In the meantime under the strain of their many troubles La Salle and Beaujeu had become friendly. After landing his colonists, Beaujeu promised to sail eastward along the coast in search of the Mississippi, and if he found it to wait there till spring for word from La Salle. A number of the colonists sailed away with him. But the river was so much farther east than Beaujeu had supposed that he failed to find it and returned to France.

Sickness soon spread among the colonists, and a number of them died. The survivors were discontented and quarrelsome, and looked upon their leader as the cause of all their woes. After making his people as comfortable as possible La Salle with a few men struck out into the wilderness on foot in the hope of reaching the Mississippi, and at the same time he sent his only remaining vessel along the coast to join in the search. La Salle failed in his first trip and then made a second effort. During his absence on this expedition the vessel which he had sent along the coast was wrecked, and when the sick and half-starved crew straggled back with this bad news the plight of the settlement was very unhappy indeed.

Death of La Salle.—As a last desperate effort La Salle then decided to make the long journey overland to Canada,

nearly two thousand miles away, to obtain relief and reinforcements. In order to prevent trouble in the settlement during his absence he took with him the most dangerous and discontented of his followers. When they had gone as far north as the Trinity River La Salle was shot from ambush by two of his mutinous men. His brother, a nephew, Father Douay, and Joutel, who had accompanied him, escaped and finally reached Canada. The little colony which had been left behind on the Lavaca River was broken up by the hostile Indians, and the Spaniards became the undisputed masters of that part of the gulf coast.

La Salle is one of the great figures in American history. He seems to have been the first man to realize the size and importance of the Mississippi Valley, and he undertook the exploration of half the North American Continent largely at his own expense. Although he failed to plant a permanent settlement on the lower Mississippi, his work had highly important results. He discovered the Ohio River, and was the first man to explore the Mississippi from its upper waters to its mouth, thereby proving that the streams below the Great Lakes reached the Gulf of Mexico instead of the Pacific Ocean, and thus causing men of that time to alter their ideas of the size and shape of the North American Continent. Moreover, it is due to La Salle more than to any one else that the French rulers eventually became interested in colonizing the great Mississippi Basin and joining it to their possessions in Canada.

Tonty of the Iron Hand.—One of La Salle's most faithful followers was Henri de Tonty, an Italian officer who had served in the French army and had lost his hand in battle. Because of the metal device which he wore attached to the stump of his arm he was known to the Indians as "Iron Hand." Tonty was with La Salle during his exploring and trading operations on the Great Lakes and on the Illinois River, and he was second in command when La Salle made his voyage down the Mississippi. He was in Canada when

word reached him of La Salle's troubles in Texas, and though it was the dead of winter he at once set out for the gulf to give what help he could to his chief. He went to the mouth of the Mississippi and searched the coast for thirty leagues to the east and to the west without finding any trace of the colonists. He then returned north, but on his way up the river he left a letter for La Salle with an Indian chief and told him to give it to the first Frenchman who came that way. Thirteen years later this letter was delivered to another French explorer named Iberville, of whom we shall hear more later.

At the mouth of the Arkansas River Tonty also left six of his men in the hope that they might bring him word later of his old leader. These men later received the four followers of La Salle who had escaped from Texas after his murder and sent them on to Canada after they had recovered somewhat from their terrible experiences in the wilderness.

QUESTIONS

1. Why was Louis XIV interested in a new colony near the mouth of the Mississippi?
2. Describe La Salle's preparations for the voyage.
3. What misfortunes overtook him on the way?
4. Why did not La Salle know that his vessels had reached the gulf coast west of the Mississippi?
5. Where did the expedition land? Describe the condition of the colony.
6. Tell about La Salle's further efforts to reach the Mississippi.
7. Give the chief facts about the death of La Salle.
8. What do you think of La Salle as an explorer?
9. Compare his work with that of De Soto.
10. Who was "Tonty of the Iron Hand"?
11. What territory was included under the name of Louisiana in La Salle's time?

V

IBERVILLE ASCENDS THE GREAT RIVER

The unhappy ending of La Salle's efforts to found a French colony on the Gulf of Mexico did not encourage others to follow his example. Then, too, three years after the death of this great explorer France was drawn into an European war, known in America as King William's War, which lasted seven years, or until 1697. During this time the French were kept too busy defending the colonies they had already founded to give much attention to plans for founding others. Soon after peace was made rumors reached the royal court in Paris that the English, who claimed all the continent "from sea to sea" between Canada and Florida, were planning to extend their settlements into Louisiana.

Count de Pontchartrain, the French Minister of Marine, determined that France should reap the benefits of the work of La Salle. His son and secretary, Count de Maurepas, shared his father's ambitions for the glory of France, and sought a man to lead the new expedition which his father had already begun to plan. Tonty had offered, some time before, to continue La Salle's work, but it was thought that the task of planting settlements on the Mississippi and the gulf required the knowledge and experience of an able sailor for its success. The man finally chosen for this work was Pierre Le Moyne, a young Canadian, better known in history as the Sieur d'Iberville. In Canada at this time lands were granted by the government in large estates called seigniories, and their owners followed the custom of the land-holding nobility of Europe of adding the names of their estates to their Christian names, and they were usually designated by the former. In this way Pierre Le Moyne

came to be known as Iberville, and his younger brother, Jean Baptiste, as Bienville.

The Le Moyne Family.—Iberville was the son of Charles Le Moyne, a native of Dieppe, France, who had gone to Canada when a youth, and after settling on an estate near Quebec became known as the Sieur de Longueil. He had twelve sons, nine of whom attained distinction in the French navy, and three of whom, like their father, died fighting for France. Iberville, the third son, was twenty-seven years old when selected for this undertaking. He was a good sailor and had won honors in the French navy during the recent war. His early life in Canada had also made him a skilled woodsman, so that he was especially well fitted to become the head of a new colony. His choice proved to be a wise one, and Iberville became the colonizer of Louisiana, just as La Salle was its explorer.

Pierre Le Moyne
Sieur d'Iberville

On October 24, 1698, Iberville sailed from Brest with two hundred soldiers and settlers in a warship, the *Badine*. Another warship, the *Marin,* accompanied him. With him was his young brother Bienville, now just eighteen years of age. During the war he had served under Iberville as a midshipman.

Spanish at Pensacola.—After they heard of La Salle's expedition to the gulf the Spanish officials in the West Indies took active steps to prevent other nations from planting settlements in this region. They made a thorough exploration of the whole coast line, and on finding an excellent

harbor to the east of the Mississippi they took three hundred men from their ships and established there a military post which they called Pensacola.

Iberville took great care not to repeat the mistakes of La Salle. Before sailing he gathered all the information he could obtain about Louisiana and took with him copies of the printed narratives collected from members of La Salle's first expedition. He also took with him Father Douay, a survivor of La Salle's last effort in Texas. Father Douay knew something of the coast and could speak several Indian dialects. On his way to Louisiana Iberville stopped at Santo Domingo, where, after obtaining further information from sailors who had been in the gulf, and securing a guide who had explored part of the northern gulf coast, he set sail for the mouth of the Great River. Another warship, the *François,* joined the *Badine* and *Marin* at Santo Domingo to help defend the expedition in case it was attacked by the Spanish or English.

On sighting the northern coast of the gulf, Iberville sailed westward with the *Badine* and *Marin* as close to the shore as they could safely go, while the *François,* being a heavier ship of war, stood farther out and kept a watch for some English ships which the French were told at Santo Domingo were in the gulf also seeking to set up a colony on the Mississippi. A ship's boat was let down and sent in still closer to the shore to examine every break in the coast line that might possibly be the mouth of a river.

Proceeding in this way, the French ran into the harbor of Pensacola, where they found the Spanish garrison that had been placed there to keep the French out of the gulf. The half-starved, sick and disgusted Spaniards were in no condition to give the French any trouble, but Iberville thought it wise to conceal from them his real plan and pretended to be searching for some lost Canadians on the coast. He learned all he could about the surrounding country from the Spaniards and then sailed on till he reached

Mobile Bay. Here he met some friendly Indians on a hunting expedition, who told him of a large river to the west which could be reached by a short land journey. They agreed to guide him to it, but on the appointed day they failed to appear.

Iberville then decided that the best way to reach the river was to leave his vessels at what is now called Ship Island and to follow the shore in small boats. He therefore loaded two ship's boats with food and ammunition and started out with two canoes in tow. His brother Bienville went with him in one boat, and Sauvole, one of his officers, and Father Douay went in the other. As there was nothing to fear from the Spaniards, and no signs of the English had been seen, the *François* was not needed for protection and was sent back to Santo Domingo.

Finding the River.—To find even so large a river as the Mississippi on that coast was not an easy task. The lands were low and flat, and there were hundreds of small islands covered with grass and tall reeds that could have easily concealed the mouth of a river. Then, too, the explorers were troubled with fogs and heavy rains; but after four days of exposure to the bad weather they sighted late in the afternoon of March second what at first they took to be a number of rocky reefs jutting out into the gulf. A heavy wind and high waves were driving their boats straight toward the rocks in the gathering darkness, and to remain afloat during the night in that region meant certain destruction. Iberville, therefore, ordered the boats to make straight for the rocks, hoping to find a spot where they could make a safe landing. As they drew nearer they found that the reef was broken in many places, with passages of quieter water in the gaps. Iberville guided his boat through one of these and was amazed to find the water fresh and flowing in a swift current. What the Frenchmen had supposed in the dim twilight to be rocks proved to be great masses of drift wood brought down by the river at its

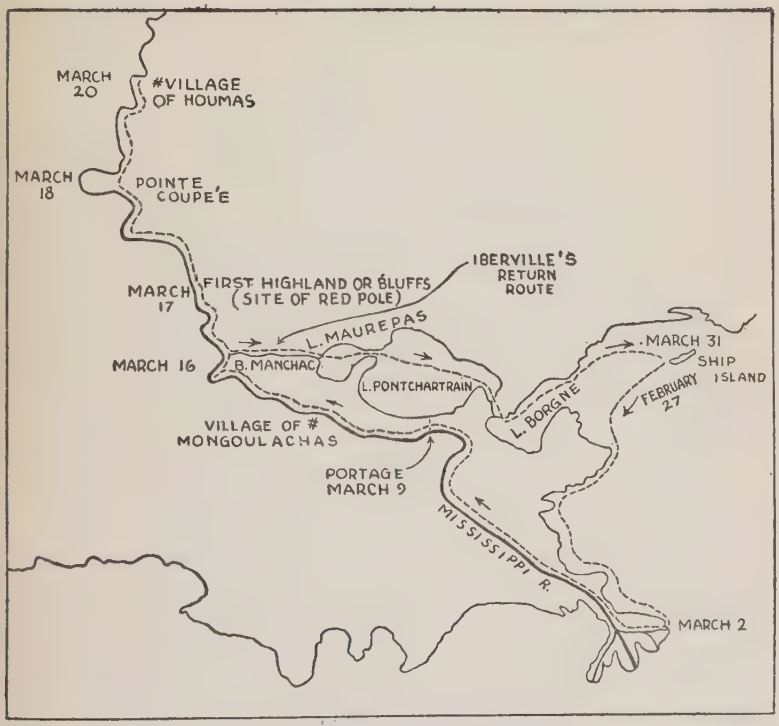
flood stage and deposited on the mud bars near its mouth.

The Journey Up-stream.—The next day, which happened to be Mardi Gras, or Shrove Tuesday, Iberville began his journey up-stream. He was the first explorer to travel up the Mississippi from the gulf. After four days on the river the Frenchmen fell in with some of the same Indians they had met in Mobile Bay and from them obtained guides. While Iberville was working painfully along the coast they had made a short cut to the river by way of the two lakes, of which the Frenchmen then knew nothing. Two days later they reached a point where the Indians showed them a short portage to a small bayou which they were told made it easy to reach the gulf through the lakes. This was the site of the future city of New Orleans.

Meanwhile the Indians living farther up the river had got word that the French were coming. The savage huntsmen whom the French had met on the river had gone ahead of them with the news, and when Iberville and his men reached the lands of the Bayougoulas and Mongoulachas, not far above Bayou Plaquemine, they were received with much dignity and ceremony by the head men of these tribes and were invited to a near-by village to smoke the pipe of peace.

So far Iberville had found the Mississippi quite different from the description of it by Father Hennepin, whose book he had brought along with him from France. It was at the time of the year when the flood was at its crest, and nearly all the country was under water and seemed to offer no very suitable place for a colony. Indeed, what he saw was so different from what he had read about the river that Iberville began to doubt whether he had found the Mississippi after all. His doubts were partly expelled, however, when he saw the Mongoulacha chief wearing a French coat in honor of the visitors and was told that it was a gift to the chief from the "Iron Hand," or Tonty.

The Red Pole.—On March 16 the Frenchmen made their camp at Bayou Manchac, which the Indians called Ascantia, and which then made a fork of the Mississippi at high water and flowed into the gulf by way of the lakes. The next day they reached the first high land or bluffs, and there on the banks of "a little stream like a lake" they saw



Route of Iberville and Bienville

a reddened pole about thirty feet high, to which were attached the heads of some bears and fish as if in sacrifice. The Indian guides called the spot Istrouma, or Red Pole, and the French called it in their tongue Baton Rouge. The small stream there marked the boundary line between the hunting grounds of the Bayougoulas and the Houmas, who lived farther north.

The next day the boats came to a point where the river made a great bend like a horse-shoe. Across the narrowest part of the land enclosed by this bend the Indian guides pointed out a small bayou through which the French threaded their way and thus saved a day's journey. This short cut they called Pointe Coupée (Cut Point), and the name survives to this day. The river itself finally changed its bed and took this shorter route to the gulf, and the great bend is now a body of still water known as False River.

After two more days of hard pulling against the current Iberville reached the village of the Houmas, which was as far as he had planned to go this time, as his men were worn out and the food supply was running low. Iberville gave the Indians presents of various trinkets and they in turn arranged two great feasts and dances in honor of the white men. From their chief Iberville learned that Tonty had passed through their village on his way to the mouth of the river and again when he returned north. This news made him feel certain that he was really on the Mississippi. One of the guides then told Iberville that the "Iron Hand" had left a letter with the Mongoulacha chief at whose village the French had stopped and had told him to give it to the first white man who came up from the sea.

This news caused Iberville to hasten his return. When the party reached Bayou Manchac Iberville decided to take the short cut to the gulf with the two canoes and an Indian guide, while Bienville, Sauvole and the rest went down the river as they had come. From the Mongoulacha chief Bienville got Tonty's letter. It was the one he had left for La Salle thirteen years before, and it furnished final proof that the great stream up which the French had journeyed was indeed none other than the Mississippi. Meanwhile Iberville, after passing through Bayou Manchac and the Amite River, found two lakes, the larger of which he named Pontchartrain after the French Minister of Marine, and the smaller Maurepas, after the minister's son and secretary.

Just a month after setting out Iberville was back at Ship Island on the deck of the *Badine*. A few hours later Bienville and Sauvole joined him. The task of making the first voyage up the river from the Gulf of Mexico had been successfully completed.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did the French delay in carrying on the work begun by La Salle?
2. What caused them finally to resume their efforts to plant a colony on the Mississippi?
3. Who was chosen for this task? Tell what you can about his family.
4. What did Spain do in order to keep the French away from the gulf?
5. Describe the voyage from France and the finding of the mouth of the Mississippi.
6. Why was Iberville uncertain for a time whether he had found the stream for which he was looking?
7. How did he finally learn that it was really the Mississippi?
8. Explain the origin of the names Lake Pontchartrain, Pointe Coupée, Baton Rouge.

VI

BIENVILLE BECOMES GOVERNOR

Although the French had planned to set up a colony on the Mississippi River, Iberville doubted whether he could take his two large ships through the narrow and shallow passes at its mouth, and he saw also that the new settlement would have to be in easy reach of the vessels in order to get its supplies. For the time being, then, the plan of a colony on the river was given up, and after further examining the coast Iberville chose a place on the Bay of Biloxi as the most suitable for a settlement. Here the French built Fort Maurepas, and late in June, 1699, Iberville sailed back to France to get further supplies, leaving Sauvole in charge, with Bienville as second in command.

The English Menace.—In the meantime Bienville was busy with further exploration along the river and the gulf. In May he visited an Indian village on the northern shore of Lake Pontchartrain and found the natives greatly disturbed because two days before they had been attacked by a party of other Indians led by two white men called "Englichi." These were traders from Carolina. They soon became more numerous in the lower Mississippi Valley and were to give the French no little trouble.

A few months later Bienville found more evidence of English designs on Louisiana. In September he was descending the river on his return to Biloxi, after having explored Bayou Plaquemines. About eighteen miles below the present site of New Orleans he encountered a British ship of war of sixteen guns. Its captain, whom Bienville had known before in Canada, stated that he was looking for a suitable spot for founding an English colony. Bienville convinced him that the French were already in possession, and the Englishman then put his ship about and sailed

away. This occurred at a great bend in the river, which ever since that day has been called English Turn. Thus the rivalry between the French and the English for the control of the Mississippi Valley, which was to last for more than a hundred years, had already begun.

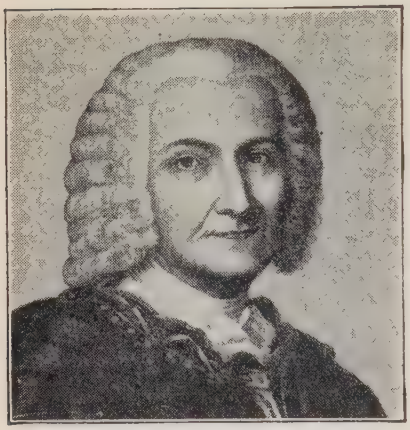
Near the end of the year Iberville returned from France with supplies and more colonists, and on learning of the English efforts to gain a foothold on the river he set out at once with Bienville and erected a small fort some fifty miles above its mouth. This was the first settlement of white men in what is now the state of Louisiana, but it was not permanent. The fort was abandoned a few years later. While the two brothers were directing the work on this log fort a canoe carrying eight men came down the river, and Iberville was delighted to find that the leader of the party was none other than Tonty of the Iron Hand, whose letter to La Salle had been found by Bienville the year before. Tonty had heard that the French had at last begun to carry out the plans of his old leader La Salle for a settlement on the gulf coast, and he decided to repeat the trip he had made fourteen years before and learn whether the story was true.

After resting three days at the new fort Tonty started back up the river, and Iberville and Bienville went with him as far as the site of the present town of Natchez. This point, on a high bluff above the river, seemed well suited for a settlement, and Iberville called it Rosalie, in honor of the wife of his patron, Count de Pontchartrain.

Bienville as Governor.—Iberville left Bienville in command of the new fort on the Mississippi and returned to France for further help. In July, 1701, Sauvole died of fever, and Bienville, though only twenty years old, became governor of the colony. In the same year Iberville made his third trip to Louisiana, bringing more supplies and soldiers. While in France he had obtained royal consent to the removal of the colony to a more suitable place. The lands around Biloxi were so sandy that the colonists could

not make a living there, even if they had shown any special liking for farming. The place was not healthful, and nearly a third of those who had come over had died in the first two years. For several months before Iberville's return there was nothing at the fort for the soldiers to eat but a small quantity of corn.

The Colony Transferred.—Soon after Iberville arrived on this last trip, therefore, he had the colonists transferred to a point on the Mobile River, some distance above the present city of Mobile. There was a good harbor there, and the lands were better suited for farming. The new settlement was called Fort Louis de la Mobile. A small garrison of soldiers was left on guard at the fort in Biloxi, and another post was established on Dauphin Island in Mobile Bay. With the post on the Mississippi Iberville had now founded four settlements.



Jean Baptiste le Moyne
Sieur de Bienville

The Spaniards in Pensacola did not like to see a foreign nation spreading its settlements in their direction, and the Spanish governor finally made a visit to Fort Louis and told the French that they were on lands which belonged to the king of Spain, as Spain then claimed all that territory as part of Florida. The French, however, turned a deaf ear to the governor's claims and threats, and he could only sail back to Pensacola after giving them a warning. Unluckily, his boat was wrecked in a squall, and he was forced to make his way back to Fort Louis on foot and beg the

French to help him return to his post. They kindly supplied him with what he needed and sent him on to Pensacola.

In 1703 war broke out in Europe. The conflict was known in this country as Queen Anne's War. France and Spain were allies against England. When word reached Louisiana that the English in Carolina were planning to seize Pensacola the French forgot their rivalry and went to the aid of their Spanish neighbors. Iberville meanwhile had returned to France, but the mother country was now too busy fighting to give further help for the time being to her distant colony. The settlers were unable to produce sufficient food for their needs. Just as famine began to stare them in the face a ship loaded with supplies arrived from Pensacola, and the Spaniards thus repaid the French for their help of the previous year.

Hard Times in the Colony.—The years that followed were a period of trial and suffering for the colonists. Most of the first comers to Louisiana were adventurers and fortune-seekers who were poorly fitted for the hard work of clearing away the forests and growing strange crops like Indian corn in a climate and soil to which they were not accustomed. Iberville pleaded with the French government to send more tillers of the soil to the colony, but it was no easy matter to persuade peasant farmers to leave their homes and kindred and risk their lives in the American wilderness. Moreover, the peasant farmers of France at this time were tied to the soil, and even if they had desired to leave for America the landlords and tax gatherers who depended on their labors for a living would not have allowed them to depart.

Poor food, change of climate, and lack of medicines and ordinary comforts led to much sickness, and for a time the number of deaths was almost equal to the number of new arrivals. In 1705 thirty-five persons died from yellow fever brought by a ship from the West Indies. The faithful and useful Tonty was among the number. A year later, in spite of new arrivals, there were only eighty-two white persons

in the settlement, in addition to the soldiers, of whom there were about two hundred. From time to time numbers of the men, to escape starvation, left Fort Louis and went out and lived among the friendly Indians until new supplies arrived from France. The colony so far was mainly of a military character. Most of its white inhabitants were soldiers to man the forts or other persons in the pay of the king. The number of home-seekers was small, but in 1704 twenty-three young women were sent over for wives for those who wished to make homes for themselves in the wilderness. In this year, too, the first Creole was born in the colony. He was christened Jean François Le Camp.

Death of Iberville.—Naturally the hardships of these days led to great discontent and to many quarrels, and the colonists placed most of the blame for their troubles on Bienville. Some of them sent very bitter letters to France complaining of how he managed affairs. In 1706 Iberville died of yellow fever at Santo Domingo while planning an attack upon the English in Carolina, whom he regarded as the most dangerous foes of his enterprise. The death of the older brother encouraged Bienville's enemies to attack him still more fiercely, and at length after a long period of wrangling they succeeded in having him removed from office.

A new governor was appointed, but he died on the way out to the colony. Meanwhile Diron D'Artaguette was sent out as royal intendant to look into the charges made against Bienville by his enemies. He soon saw that the accusations were baseless. Bienville had been accused, among other things, of pocketing money intended for the colony, but D'Artaguette found that he had received very little and for some time had performed his duties without pay. The colony had suffered severely from lack of money, and yet the government had been spending large sums for its support. D'Artaguette's report caused Count de Pontchartrain to look in another direction, and he discovered that the

money had gone into the pockets of dishonest officials in France.

Bienville had wished to return to France to answer the charges against himself in person, but D'Artaguette told him that he must wait till the arrival of his successor. Meanwhile Count de Pontchartrain had come to look upon the colony as a very unprofitable undertaking for his government, and he began to seek some way to get rid of the burden.

In 1710 the lands about Fort Louis on the Mobile River were badly flooded, and there was also danger at this point from Indian attacks. The fort and settlement were therefore removed to the site of the present city of Mobile, which was a more comfortable situation and was also nearer to the forts on Dauphin Island and at Biloxi. Bienville remained as governor till 1713, when the government of Louisiana passed from royal to private hands.

QUESTIONS

1. Why was the first settlement established on the Gulf of Mexico rather than on the Mississippi River?
2. Where was the first settlement made?
3. Give two facts that show the interest of the English in Louisiana.
4. Explain the origin of the name "English Turn."
5. Where was the first post established in the present limits of Louisiana? Was it permanent?
6. Why was the Biloxi settlement moved? To what place was it transferred?
7. Enumerate some of the hardships of the colonists after 1703.
8. Describe the relations between the French and their Spanish neighbors at Pensacola.
9. Tell about the last days of Iberville.
10. Iberville is sometimes called the founder of Louisiana and Bienville is called its builder. Explain why.
11. What were some of Bienville's troubles as governor in this period?
12. Who were Sauvole? Diron D'Artaguette?

VII

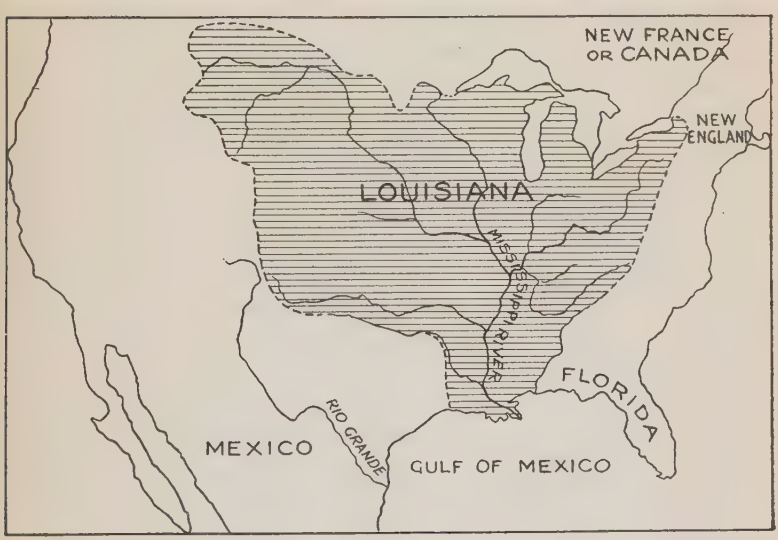
ANTOINE CROZAT, PROPRIETOR

The rulers of Europe two hundred years ago regarded the colonies which they founded in the New World a means of increasing their income. To plant new settlements in distant America was a very costly business, and the kings of England, France and Spain would never have embarked on such ventures if they had not believed that the colonies would soon yield them handsome profits. Spain for a time did derive a large return from her colonies, as many of them were rich in gold and silver, which the Spaniards mined with the labor of enslaved Indians and negroes brought from Africa.

Louis XIV had hoped that gold and silver mines might be found in his new colony of Louisiana, and a number of expeditions were sent up the Mississippi and along its tributaries to seek signs of the precious metals. Whatever hopes the French may have had on this score were doomed to disappointment. In the meantime Louis XIV's ambitious schemes in Europe had involved France in many costly wars, and the country was groaning under its burden of debt and taxes. Louisiana so far had been a heavy drain on the royal treasury, and King Louis was anxious to get rid of this extra expense. He therefore transferred the colony to one of his wealthy subjects, just as a landowner to-day might lease a farm that he could not make pay its expenses under his own management.

Antoine Crozat.—The man to whom Louis XIV turned over the colony was Antoine Crozat, one of the richest merchants of his day. He expected to gain further riches from his bargain with the king, and he hoped some day to see Louisiana become as fine an estate as any held by the most

powerful nobles of Europe. The grant was signed by the king on September 14, 1712. In it Louisiana is described as the land between Canada and New Mexico, and bounded on the east by Carolina. By this grant Crozat got the sole right to carry on trade in any part of the vast province for a period of fifteen years. All lands which he would bring under cultivation, and all buildings which he would erect were to be his forever. He was also allowed to send a ship



The Country First Called Louisiana

once a year to Africa for slaves. In return for these privileges Crozat was required to send two ship loads of colonists to Louisiana each year. For the first nine years the king was to allow him a sum of money to pay the soldiers and colonial officers, but after that Crozat was to bear the whole expense himself.

There was little chance of an immediate fortune for Crozat in his new venture. Thirteen years after its establishment the colony contained barely three hundred white settlers. Besides these there were a few slaves and about

a hundred soldiers and seventy-five Canadians serving for pay. Yet Crozat took up his work with the vigor one would expect from a successful merchant. He sent over new settlers and a large quantity of goods which he hoped to sell at a profit. He made one great blunder, however, in removing Bienville as governor and sending out Lamothe Cadillac in his place. Cadillac had served as captain of French troops in Canada, and while there founded a settlement at Detroit. He was now an eccentric old man, haughty, aristocratic and poverty-stricken. He had many quarrels with Bienville, who remained as lieutenant-governor, and with other officials; and in his letters to the French government he roundly abused the colonists, who in turn scoffed at and ridiculed him.

Cadillac was instructed by Crozat to search for gold and silver mines and to build up a trade with the Spaniards in Mexico, so that the colony would become profitable. He sent his Canadian "woods runners" up the Mississippi Valley in search of mines, but they were poor hands for this sort of work; they knew how to hunt deer and bear, but not for precious metals. Crozat spent a vast sum for goods to be sold in Mexico, but the Spanish authorities refused to allow his agents to enter that province, as Spain proposed to retain all the trade of her colonies for her own benefit.

Founding of Natchitoches.—The attempt to develop trade with the Mexicans had one important result. In carrying out his instructions on this point, Cadillac in 1714 sent Juchereau de St. Denis, a young officer, to establish a post on the Red River and thus prevent the Spaniards from taking possession of that region, as the French had heard that they intended to do. St. Denis placed a garrison of Canadians at Natchitoches, and this was the first permanent settlement within the limits of the present state of Louisiana.

St. Denis soon afterward set out with a few companions

into Mexico to look into the chances of developing trade in that direction. The Spanish authorities seized him and sent him to Mexico City as a prisoner. He had many romantic adventures in Mexico, and was finally allowed to return to Mobile after two years' absence; but he failed to get the consent of the Spanish authorities to open up trade between Louisiana and Mexico.

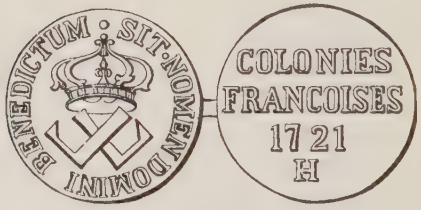
Fort Rosalie.—In 1716 Cadillac sent Bienville up the Mississippi River to demand satisfaction from the Natchez Indians, who had robbed and murdered some French traders that had gone among them. Bienville met the hostile warriors with only a handful of men, but he understood the Indian character so well that he succeeded in overawing their chiefs and making them fully atone for all the injury they had done the French. While there he established Fort Rosalie, which marks the beginning of the present town of Natchez. This fort was not only to protect the French from the Indians, but also to serve as an outpost against English traders from Carolina, who were becoming more numerous and more troublesome to the French along that part of the Mississippi River.

In 1717 Cadillac was succeeded as governor by L'Epinay, who brought with him fifty colonists and more soldiers. He was no more successful, however, than Cadillac had been in making the colony a source of profit for his master. He knew nothing of the Indian character and disappointed the chiefs by not sending them the customary presents on his arrival. The English traders in the backwoods took advantage of their discontent to win still more Indian trade away from the French. Failure to establish trade with Mexico had caused Crozat a heavy loss, and it now became apparent that he could not compete successfully with his English rivals in trading with the red men. A few months after L'Epinay's arrival Crozat had become so discouraged that he asked the king to relieve him of the burden, which he said was too great to be borne by one man.

The request was granted, and Crozat's dreams of wealth and honors as the ruler of the greatest province in North America were at an end.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the purpose of European rulers two or three hundred years ago in founding colonies?
2. Why did Louis XIV turn Louisiana over to Crozat?
3. What rights did Crozat obtain? What was he required to do in return for them?
4. Who were: Lamothe Cadillac? St. Denis?
5. Describe the founding of Natchitoches. Why is this event important in Louisiana history?
6. Describe the founding of Fort Rosalie. What was the purpose of a fort in that part of the Mississippi Valley?
7. Tell what you can of L'Epinay.
8. Why did Crozat return his grant to the king?



Coins Made in 1721 for the French Colonies

VIII

JOHN LAW AND THE MISSISSIPPI COMPANY

The experience of Crozat had shown that the colonization and development of Louisiana was too great a task to be undertaken by a single individual, even though he was very rich, and the French government next decided to entrust this work to a company of men who could provide greater resources for the undertaking and divide the risk among themselves so that no one of them would be ruined if the plan did not succeed. Practically the same rights, powers and duties which had been given to Crozat were granted, therefore, to a group of persons known as the Mississippi Company, or the Company of the West.

John Law of Lauriston

John Law.—The history of the Mississippi Company centers around John Law. He was a Scotchman and one of the most interesting characters of this period. Law came of a wealthy family of Edinburgh, and as a young man had become an expert at games of chance. After killing a man in a duel he fled to the Continent of Europe, where as a fashionable and lucky gambler he grew very rich and enjoyed the friendship of the leading European nobility and statesmen. In this way he became acquainted with the Duke of Orleans, who at the time was the regent, or acting ruler of France, until the new king, Louis XV, should come of age.

Law had an idea that a country could increase its wealth simply by printing vast quantities of paper money. We now know that this is a mistaken notion, and that every nation which has tried such a scheme has suffered terrible losses. In Law's time, however, the idea was new and untried, and it is not surprising that some people thought that it would work. As we have already seen, France at this time was badly in need of money, and the Duke of Orleans was finally won over to Law's views, which seemed to offer the government a way out of its troubles. Law, therefore, got permission in 1716 to set up a great bank, of which he became the head, and by which he hoped to make enough money to take care of all the needs of the government.

The next year Law added colonizing to his program and became the head of the new Mississippi Company, formed to take over Louisiana after the retirement of Crozat. Law soon undertook various other schemes. Through his influence over the regent he got the sole right to sell tobacco and to trade with the East Indies, China, and all the countries along the South Seas, as the Pacific Ocean was then called. In 1719 all these various rights were combined under a single company known as the Company of the Indies, which thus got control of most of the foreign trade of France and seemed to offer great chances for money-making. The French people grew enthusiastic over the plan and fairly fought for the privilege of investing their money in the company.

In the meantime the new bank flooded the country with its paper money, and for a few months it brought what seemed to be prosperity, because the people did not yet realize that mere paper with no real wealth or value behind it was not good money. The good times had too little foundation to last, however, and in 1720 the boom came to a quick end. The people discovered that the money which had become so abundant would buy very little and that they were not being enriched under Law's new scheme, as they had

been led to expect. When the bubble finally burst thousands of people were ruined, and Law fled for his life, barely escaping from an angry mob in Paris. Nine years later he died in poverty in Italy.

The Company of the Indies.—In spite of the failure of Law's paper money plan, the Company of the Indies came through the crash and remained in control of Louisiana. While Law was at its head he made great efforts to induce colonists to settle in Louisiana. Pamphlets giving an exaggerated description of the advantages of the region and picturing it as almost another Garden of Eden were scattered all over France. They did great harm, because they led those who went to Louisiana to expect too much, and the more they expected the greater was to be their disappointment and discontent on arriving and finding things so different. As a result, the disappointed colonists sent back gloomy stories of hardships and suffering that were repeated and exaggerated until they were as far from the truth in one direction as the stories circulated by the company's agents were in the other.

These frightful stories made it hard for the company to persuade any one to go to Louisiana, although it had agreed, when it took over the colony, to send six thousand white persons and three thousand negro slaves. In order to carry out this agreement, agents of the company at first undertook to seize and compel the migration of many beggars and idle persons by force. Such people were the worst that could have been chosen for colonists, and most of those of that sort quickly perished in the hard struggle for existence in the new country. It did not take long for the officials to see that this was a mistake, and in 1720 the regent issued an order putting an end to that sort of colonizing.

Land Grants.—The company profited by the costly blunders of Crozat, and instead of wasting money and labor in hunting for gold and silver and in trying to open up trade with Mexico it sought to make the colony prosper by en-

couraging the tilling of the soil. It therefore made large grants of land to many men of wealth and influence in France, in the hope that they would interest themselves in building up great estates. Law himself received a grant of twelve square miles on the Arkansas River. Bernard de la Harpe got a grant at Natchitoches, and Diron d'Artaguette got the lands where now stands the city of Baton Rouge. With the exception of Law the holders of these grants did little toward colonizing their new estates, and their lands finally passed to other owners.

After a few months the company recalled L'Epinay and reappointed Bienville as governor. In the first year of its control the company sent over about eight hundred colonists and soldiers. Bienville asked that more carpenters and plowmen be sent, and about a thousand negro slaves were brought from Africa to help clear the fields and grow crops. The population of the colony began to increase rapidly. In four years (1717-1721) the company sent over more than seven thousand colonists. Among them were two hundred Germans sent by Law for his estate on the Arkansas River. When news of Law's downfall reached them they abandoned their settlement and planned to return home, but were persuaded to take up new lands on the lower Mississippi in what are now the parishes of St. Charles and St. John the Baptist. This region was long known thereafter as the German Coast.

In spite of the large migration to Louisiana at this time the white population in 1721 was estimated as only a little over five thousand. Under the hardships in an unsettled country the number of deaths was large. Many of the newcomers also grew discontented and returned home or moved to some other colony.

Capture of Pensacola.—Early in 1719 war broke out between France and Spain. When the news reached Mobile Bienville planned a surprise attack on Pensacola. The place was captured, but as the French had no supplies for such

a large number of prisoners as were taken they put them on ships and sent them to Havana. The Spanish troops there immediately seized the French vessels and used them to recapture Pensacola from the French. Later several French ships arrived at Mobile and Bienville used them to take Pensacola a second time. The French did not hold the post very long, however, for when the treaty of peace was signed between France and Spain in 1721 Pensacola was restored to the Spaniards.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the Mississippi Company?
2. Who were John Law? The Duke of Orleans?
3. What was Law's plan for making a country rich?
4. What was the Company of the Indies, and what privileges did it enjoy?
5. How did Law's schemes work? What became of Law?
6. What did the company do to induce people to go to Louisiana? What was the result?
7. How did the company try to interest prominent men in France in the settlement of Louisiana? Who were some of the men that became interested?
8. Explain how the term "German Coast" originated.
9. How successful was the company in colonizing Louisiana?
10. Describe the capture and recapture of Pensacola during the war with Spain. What was the final result?

IX

THE FOUNDING OF NEW ORLEANS

La Salle, Iberville and Bienville were all of the opinion that if France was to control the entire Mississippi Valley its chief settlement should be on the Mississippi River. Bienville thought that the best place for it was on the strip of land between the river and Lake Pontchartrain at a point where the Bayou St. John made it fairly easy to transfer boats and canoes from the lake to the river. You will remember that the Indian guides had pointed out this spot to Iberville and Bienville on their first trip up the river in 1699, and in his later journeys up the valley from Biloxi or Mobile Bienville had used the route through the lakes in preference to ascending the river from its mouth, as the latter way was longer and also against the current for a greater portion of the journey.

Bienville at an early date encouraged a few Canadians to build their log huts at the chosen point, and in 1718 when the Company of the Indies made him governor again of the province and began to send over many soldiers and colonists he determined to plant a new settlement at the spot. He then sent about fifty men there to clear away trees, dig drainage ditches, and make the place ready for homes for the new settlers. In honor of Philippe, Duke of Orleans, then Regent of France, he called it New Orleans. Its founding was the most important event in the history of the colony since the planting of the first settlement at Biloxi.

Plans for a City.—Bienville appears to have foreseen the growth of his new settlement into a city, for he had the chief engineer of the colony, Chevalier Le Blond de la Tour, to lay out streets and squares on the cleared land, and to choose sites for a church, market place, barracks, governor's house, prison and powder magazine. The first streets laid

out received the names of royal princes of France, and these they still bear to-day.

In the summer of 1718 the Company of the Indies sent shipload after shipload of colonists to Louisiana. Most of them were landed on Dauphin Island, in Mobile Bay, a barren, sandy spot with little shelter or other comforts. The newcomers, worn out with their long sea voyage, were homesick and discontented when they landed, and under the hardships which they suffered in the crowded quarters on Dauphin Island many sickened and died before Bienville and his few helpers could distribute them among the settlements on the river and the gulf coast and furnish them with the lands and supplies which the company had promised.

Philippe, Duke of Orleans

Need of Labor.—Few of those whom the company sent over at this time were fit for the hard life in the new colony. Sturdy farmers were needed if Louisiana was to prosper, but, as we have already seen, many of those who were sent were ne'er-do-wells from the poorest quarters of the cities of France. When their unfitness was finally realized the company tried to supply the needed labor by sending over large numbers of African slaves, of whom there were already a number in the colony.

The Indians had been making slaves of their war captives for a long time before the French came to Louisiana, and when the white man traded with the savages the latter offered him their slaves as well as their furs, skins and corn in exchange for his beads, calicoes, hatchets, guns and

liquor. The red man was a very poor worker for his white master, and he usually escaped to the woods at the first opportunity. The French government disapproved making slaves of the Indians, and the largest number ever held in slavery at any one time was about two hundred. This was about the time that New Orleans was founded.

Negro Slavery.—The Indian would not work for wages any better than he would work as a slave, and we have seen also how difficult it was to get white settlers to work the lands. This caused the officials to look more and more to Africa for their labor supply. Negro slavery spread very slowly in the colony. It is said that there were only ten African slaves in the colony when Crozat took charge. You will recall that the king gave him the right to bring a ship load of negroes from Africa every year, but he did not bring nearly so many. The Company of the Indies, however, soon after it took over the colony, began to bring them over in large numbers. In a single year it brought over one thousand three hundred, and it placed altogether about six thousand blacks in the colony.

When slaves were purchased from traders in Africa they wore very little clothing, as they lived in a warm country. At times a ship loaded with African slaves would reach Louisiana in the winter, and agents of the company would have a hard time getting warm clothing for several hundred negroes on such short notice, as the colony still had comparatively few people, and extra supplies of all things were very scarce.

After the slaves were brought ashore and offered for sale a card containing a number was hung around the neck of each. Then cards containing the same numbers were placed in a bag, and each buyer drew a card from the bag and was entitled to purchase the slave that bore the same number. The company's agents always looked into the affairs of the planters who wished to buy slaves and gave the company the names of those who appeared to need them and were

able to care for them properly. The planters usually got their slaves on credit and paid for them over a period of years with produce from their farms.

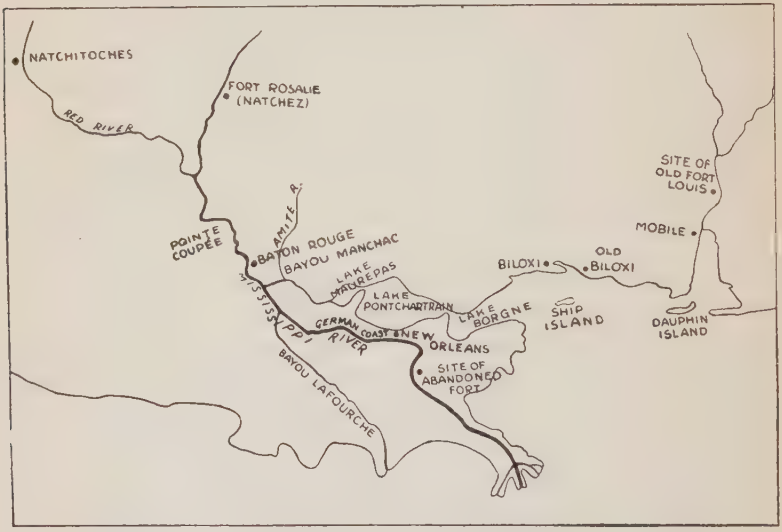
It was in this way that negro slavery was introduced into Louisiana, just as it was introduced into all the other colonies of the New World. The slavery system made possible the cultivation of large areas of rich river lands and the raising of large crops of rice, indigo and tobacco. This could not have been done at this time if the colony had been compelled to rely wholly upon the labor of white men. Slavery was also the means whereby thousands of savages were brought to a new land, taught the arts of civilized life and converted to Christianity. Nevertheless, at a distant day it was to bring great trouble to the whole country, and some of the problems that it created are still with us.

Moving the Capital.—Bienville was anxious to move the capital of the colony away from the scene of all the suffering and death that had been witnessed on Dauphin Island. The gulf coast was too sandy and barren for good farming, and he therefore favored changing the seat of government to the new settlement at New Orleans. The company's officers still thought, however, that the capital should be on the coast and they did not believe that large vessels could enter the mouth of the Mississippi. Bienville showed them that they were mistaken in this matter by taking a ship through one of the passes and up the river as far as New Orleans. The officers finally agreed that the capital ought to be moved from Mobile, but they insisted on its being set up again at the old fort at Biloxi rather than where Bienville wished to establish it.

A short time after its removal to this place a fire destroyed the fort and other buildings, and Bienville again sought, without success, to have the seat of government transferred to New Orleans. Instead, a new site on the west side of the bay, where the present town of Biloxi stands, was chosen. It was called New Biloxi to distin-

guish it from the first settlement, which then became known as Old Biloxi.

The new settlement proved to be a poor place for a capital. The water there was so shallow that ocean vessels could approach no nearer than Ship Island, fifteen miles off the coast. All supplies from France had to be loaded from the ships into boats and transferred again to still smaller boats before they could be brought to shore. This required much time and labor, as you can see.



Early French Settlements

New Orleans the Capital.—In 1722, when three commissioners were sent over from France to look into the affairs of the company in Louisiana, Bienville made another appeal for a transfer of the capital to New Orleans, and he obtained their consent. New Orleans at that time was a little village of about three hundred people, but the number was soon increased by the general movement of settlers from the old capital to the new. Work was begun on levees to protect the settlement from overflow. New

buildings were erected for the government, and a landing-place for ships was built on the river front.

At this time a number of other settlements had already been established on the river. They were to be found at Fort Rosalie (now Natchez), at Pointe Coupée, near Bayou Manchac, on Bayou Lafourche, on the German Coast, and at Tchoupitoulas.

Shortly after the seat of government was moved to New Orleans the province of Louisiana was divided into nine districts, designated as Mobile, Biloxi, Alibamons, New Orleans, Yazoo, Natchez, Arkansas, Natchitoches and Illinois. These names will give you some idea of the great stretch of territory which Bienville was directed to govern. A commander was appointed for each district, and he in turn was subject to the orders of the Superior Council, consisting of the governor and other leading officials of the colony chosen by the king's ministers in Paris.

QUESTIONS

1. What point did Bienville think best suited for the chief town of Louisiana?
2. Why did he think that the capital of the colony should be on the river?
3. Describe the laying out of the new settlement? What reason is there for believing that Bienville expected it some day to be a great city?
4. Where was Dauphin Island, and why did it prove a bad landing-place for new colonists?
5. Did the new settlers make good farmers? Why?
6. When there were not enough white workers what was done in order to get more labor?
7. What sort of workers did the Indians make?
8. Describe the spread of negro slavery in the colony.
9. What were some of the early results of the introduction of slavery?
10. Tell what you can about Old Biloxi and New Biloxi.
11. Where was the capital finally established?
12. Name some other important settlements on the lower Mississippi at this time.

X

THE COMPANY OF THE INDIES

Soon after New Orleans became the capital the new settlers began to lay out plantations along the river above and below the settlement, and as the rich soil of this region was quite different from the barren sands of the gulf coast the condition of the colonists began to improve, and the distressing scenes that took place at Dauphin Island were not repeated. Yet it would be wrong to describe the colony at this time as prosperous. It had not yet reached the stage where it was self-supporting, and it required constant help from the mother country to save its inhabitants from famine.

Indian Trade.—One source of profit for the colonists might have been the trade with the Indians. The red men would gladly exchange their valuable furs for trinkets that the white traders could get from Europe at little cost. The Company of the Indies, however, kept this trade entirely in its own hands and tried to control it by fixing prices that its traders were to ask for their wares and offer for the Indians' furs. This gave the English traders from Carolina a great advantage. They were allowed a free hand in dealing with the natives and could offer them just a little more than the price fixed by the company in Paris. In this way they succeeded in taking much of the trade away from the French.

The Indians quite naturally liked those traders best who offered them the goods that they wanted most at the lowest prices. The English were quick to take note of this fact. They carefully studied the red man's likes and dislikes and sought in every way to find out just what sort of goods would best suit his tastes. Consequently they

could offer a greater variety of things that the Indians especially wanted than could the agents of the Company of the Indies.

In trading along the rivers the French carried their goods in canoes very like those used by the Indians. On the upper Mississippi the canoe was usually of the birch-bark type. It was in boats like this that La Salle came down the Mississippi. These canoes were much stronger than any one would suppose who had never seen them. The bark of the birch tree was stretched and molded over ribs of spruce. All the seams were filled with pine pitch, and the boat was kept in shape by means of a frame and cross-pieces of cedar. The canoes made by the Indians in this way would carry four men and about a ton of freight, but the French with their better tools improved on this and built a type of canoe that could carry fourteen men and several tons of freight.

On the lower Mississippi the birch-bark canoe was unknown until the Canadians began coming down the stream, and the Indians in this region viewed that type of boat with no little curiosity. Their boats were made by digging out the trunk of cottonwood trees and trimming the ends into the desired shape. The French called this sort of canoe a pirogue, and it is still widely used on the streams of Louisiana to-day. The French also improved on the Indian pirogue by taking huge cypress logs nearly fifty feet long and cutting out boats that could carry from twenty to thirty men and from forty to fifty tons of freight.

The Company of the Indies followed the same method in trading with its colonists as it did in trading with the Indians. The settlers had to buy goods from the company at its own price and sell their produce to it at its own price. Moreover, the company insisted on paying for what it bought with paper money, which was really nothing but a printed slip containing a promise to pay in something else at a future date. So much of this paper was printed

and issued to the colonists that it lost a good part of its value and would buy very little. All this led to much discontent, and naturally some of the people continued to put the blame for their troubles on Bienville, who as governor had to carry out the company's orders.

Bienville's Troubles.—Some of the lesser officials, who were either jealous or for other reasons disliked the governor, helped to spread this discontent and sent many complaining letters to France. Over there, too, the officers were disappointed because the company was not earning a profit. Bienville, therefore, was called home in 1724 to answer the accusations which his enemies had made against him. It was now twenty-five years since he had come to Louisiana as a mere youth with Iberville, and during all this time he had labored faithfully and endured untold hardships to build up a great province for France in North America. That he should now have to go home and face his accusers seemed very hard indeed. Some of the leading colonists rallied to his defense, and the result was that he was upheld and his critics were sharply rebuked. The company did not think it wise, however, to reopen the dispute by sending Bienville back to Louisiana, and his place was taken by Périer.

Under Périer the colony continued to make progress in agriculture. There were by this time nearly as many slaves as whites in the colony, and labor to till the soil was therefore more abundant. Rice, tobacco and indigo were the crops that gave the best results. Figs and oranges were also being raised with success. On both sides of the river, above and below New Orleans, levees were built for a distance of eighteen miles, and this increased the feeling of security in the town and protected the neighboring plantations from overflow.

The Ursulines.—The colony was now growing, but there were not enough women in it to enable every settler to have a comfortable home of his own. In the absence of

the refining influence of good women many of the younger men in the colony, living in cabins in the backwoods, had grown to be almost as wild as Indians. The company took a very important step, then, in sending over in 1727 six Ursuline nuns who were to nurse the sick, teach the young girls, and give shelter to other young women arriving from France until they found suitable husbands. When the nuns arrived they occupied Bienville's house until a convent could be built for them. A wooden building was hastily erected near by to serve as a school for the time being, and the Sisters began their work at once with about twenty girls as pupils.

To-day we are so used to seeing schools everywhere that it is hard for us to realize the importance of this step, but if we remember that it was twenty-eight years from the founding of the first settlement to the building of the first school we may understand something of the hardships of early colonial life.

The Casket Girls.—The very next year a ship from France brought a large number of young girls of good family to New Orleans, and the Ursuline Sisters took good care of them until they could be provided with suitable husbands among the young colonists. These girls had been selected partly because of their knowledge of housekeeping, and each one on leaving home was presented by the company with a small chest, or casket, of clothing, whence they came to be known in the colony as "casket girls." They were allowed to make their own choice from among the many suitors who sought them as mates, but the suitor himself had first to have the approval of the Sisters, or he went away a bachelor.

QUESTIONS

1. Give some of the reasons why the colony was not prosperous under the Company of the Indies.
2. How did the English and the French differ in their methods of trading with the Indians?

3. Describe the traders' methods of navigating the river.
4. Why did the colonists dislike the company's management?
5. How did their discontent affect Bienville? What was the result?
6. Who succeeded Bienville?
7. What improvements were taking place in agriculture in the colony at this time?
8. Why was the arrival of the Ursuline nuns an important event?
9. Who were the "casket girls"?

From an old print

New Orleans in 1719

XI

REVOLT OF THE NATCHEZ

We have seen that the trade with the Indians was entirely in the hands of the Company of the Indies. It fixed the prices at which goods were to be sold to the natives and the

A Choctaw Indian Village

prices which they were to receive for their furs and skins. This gave the English traders a chance to win the Indians over from the French by offering them better bargains. Moreover, the company failed many times to send the goods which the Indians most wanted, and it sent too few goods of any sort. As a result, the English easily gained the friendship of the Chickasaws, a powerful and warlike tribe

that lived in what is now northern Alabama and Tennessee.

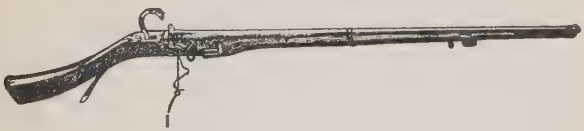
Rivalry with the English.—The Chickasaws and the English had also been working together to turn the important Natchez tribe against the French. You will recall how Bienville had to go among the Natchez when Cadillac was governor and call them to account for murdering some French traders who had come among them. Some years later, while Bienville was governor, the Natchez again waylaid and slew some French travelers. This time Bienville went among them with a large force of French and friendly Indians, but when he reached their villages he found them deserted. Only a few old or sick squaws who could not flee into the dense forests and swamps remained behind. Among the Indians of the lower Mississippi Valley only the Choctaws remained friendly to the French, and at times they were so lukewarm as to cause the Louisiana officials great anxiety.

Beyond the limits of the New Orleans district the company's hold upon its vast territory was very weak. Few of the widely separated forts which it had built were ever finished; many of the cannon were never mounted, and even when they were they were not always supplied with suitable ammunition. The cannon balls sent from France were sometimes too large or too small for the cannon. The soldiers were poorly armed, fed on scanty rations of rice and corn, and often compelled to live in huts without floors, and even to sleep on the damp ground. There were frequent desertions from the posts along the river to the Carolina settlements.

The English traders by this time had gained such influence over the Indians that they could easily have turned them against their French rivals if they had seen fit, but they knew that it would not be safe for themselves in the backwoods if the red man got too much of a taste for the white man's blood. In the meantime trouble again broke

out with the Natchez, as a result of their mistreatment by Chépart, the officer in charge of Fort Rosalie. Chépart desired to make a plantation on the land occupied by one of the Natchez villages called White Apple, and he ordered its inhabitants to move away. They begged to be let alone, but he was determined that they should obey his orders.

Indians Call a Council.—This convinced the red men that the French were planning their ruin, and the head of the Natchez, called the Great Sun, called a council of all the villages. At this council it was decided that all the Natchez should rise against the French on the same day. The Indians had no calendar as we have, but they had a way of keeping track of time that served nearly as well. The



A Matchlock Gun of Colonial Days

warriors from each village carried away a bundle of sticks, with the same number of sticks in each bundle. Every day at sunrise a stick was to be taken out and burned, and when the last one was destroyed the time to strike had come.

When the appointed day arrived every white man's cabin in the Natchez district had an Indian visitor. One red man pretended that he had furs to sell; another wanted to borrow a gun to go hunting, and so on. Then at a given signal each savage fell on the man he had picked out to kill. Over two hundred white men were massacred, and all the women, children and negro slaves were made prisoners. Chépart's head was brought to the Chief Sun, who sat in the company's storehouse at Fort Rosalie and smoked his pipe while his braves did their bloody work. Then the heads of the other white men were brought in and laid in a circle around the head of their commander. Among the men only a tailor

and a carpenter were spared, because the Indians needed their services.

This happened in November, 1729. On December second, the people of New Orleans were thrown into a panic when a ragged, foot-sore Frenchman came down the river with the news that the Natchez had taken the war path and wiped out the settlement at Fort Rosalie. He had happened to be in the woods when the massacre occurred, and he fled southward as soon as he saw what was going on. Some days later, when almost perishing with hunger, he met some Yazoo Indians, who proved to be friendly and gave him food and a canoe so that he might reach his people down the river. Only three of the white men at the fort survived the uprising.

The French Seek Revenge.—On hearing the news Governor Périer at once gathered soldiers from all the forts, and his Choctaw allies also sent seven hundred of their warriors to help revenge the death of the Frenchmen. The Choctaws, under the command of a Canadian named Le Sueur, were the first to arrive at the scene of the massacre. They fell upon the Natchez while the latter were still feasting and celebrating their victory, and killed a large number of their warriors and rescued most of the women and children held as prisoners. The Natchez took refuge behind the stockades of their village of White Apple, and when the French troops arrived later they were unable to drive the savages out. The Indians were so closely pressed, however, that the offered to give up the rest of the prisoners if the French would withdraw. This was agreed to, and the prisoners were released.

After the French were gone the entire Natchez tribe scattered in different directions. Some took refuge among the Chickasaws to the east, and others crossed the river into what is now Catahoula Parish. Governor Périer sent soldiers to follow those that went west, and later led against them eight hundred more troops that had just arrived from

France. By a ruse Périer captured several of their chiefs and sent word to the warriors that he would spare these leaders if the rest would surrender. He also promised to spare the lives of all who would give themselves up. All the women and children came over to the French camp, but only a handful of the warriors did so. The rest fled and finally made their way back across the Mississippi and joined their companions who had escaped to the Chickasaws. The Indians who had given themselves up were sent to Santo Domingo, where they were sold as slaves, but a few were tortured and put to death by the Indian allies of the French.

End of the Company of the Indies.—Along with these Indian troubles there was a severe drought in 1730 which almost destroyed the crops. The colonists were much depressed, and the officials of the company were likewise discouraged at its slow progress in developing Louisiana. They had spent an enormous amount of money on the colony and had received little in return. Fort Rosalie had been one of the most prosperous settlements, and its destruction caused them finally to conclude that their efforts were a failure. In January, 1731, the company presented a petition to the king stating that it had spent 20,000,000 livres (about $4,000,000) on Louisiana and could no longer carry such a heavy burden. It therefore surrendered its charter to the Crown, and Louisiana again became a royal province. The company had found, just as Crozat did, that a colony in a new country was not a money-making enterprise.

QUESTIONS

1. Why were the English traders more successful in their dealings with the Indians than were the French?
2. Who were the Chickasaws, and what territory did they occupy?
3. Describe the general character of the military posts maintained in Louisiana by the Company of the Indies.
4. Who were the Natchez, and what caused their revolt?
5. Describe the massacre of the French at Fort Rosalie.

6. Give the chief events in the war with the Natchez.
7. Who were the Choctaws, and what part did they play in this war?
8. What effect did this war have upon the attitude of the Company of the Indies toward Louisiana?

First Parish Church
Built 1728, on the site of
St. Louis Cathedral
From a miniature reproduction

XII

THE RETURN OF BIENVILLE

When the royal government again took over the control of Louisiana it found matters in nearly as bad shape as when it had given the colony up to Crozat nineteen years before. The poor management of the Company of the Indies had given the colony such a bad name at home that it was not an easy task to persuade more people to move out to it. In order to restore hope both in France and in his distant province the king decided to send Bienville back to Louisiana as governor. Bienville knew the Indians well and was trusted by them, and it was hoped that his return would calm the red men's fears and put an end to the uprisings that threatened French rule in the Mississippi Valley.

A Big Task.—In December, 1732, Bienville sailed with supplies and soldiers, and with orders to do three important things: first, to drive the troublesome Chickasaws out of the colony; second, to win back the good will of the Choctaws; and third, to break up the trade in Louisiana between the Indians and the English. In a territory so vast and so thinly settled by whites as Louisiana then was, this was a huge task for the king's ministers to impose upon even so able a governor as Bienville.

On arriving in Louisiana Bienville found that the hold of France on the colony had greatly weakened during the eight years of his absence. English traders were more numerous and more active than ever in the territory east of the river. The Chickasaws had defied the French by receiving and protecting the Natchez who had fled to them after massacring the soldiers and settlers at Fort Rosalie, and the Choctaw allies of the French had also grown less friendly. He saw that he must strike one great blow that would restore the respect of the red men for the power of France.

War with the Chickasaws.—Bienville therefore began at once to plan an expedition against the Chickasaws and the Natchez, and in the spring of 1736 he collected a force of over five hundred whites and forty-five free negroes. These were joined later by six hundred Choctaws. At the same time another force was being raised up in the Illinois Country by the commander of the district, D'Artaguette, a younger brother of Diron D'Artaguette. This was to move south to unite with Bienville's forces and join in the attack. Bienville assembled his men at Mobile and moved up the Tombigbee River in boats and barges against the stronghold of the Chickasaws in what is now the state of Alabama. He found the Chickasaws encamped in several villages, and over one of these the English flag was flying, and English traders were seen aiding the savages to meet the attack.

Bienville wondered why D'Artaguette did not join him from the Illinois Country, as had been planned, and he did not learn till later that only four days before this D'Artaguette's forces had been wiped out in a surprise attack while on their way to meet Bienville. Only two of D'Artaguette's men escaped, and their leader and many of his companions were captured and burned at the stake. Bienville found it impossible to hold his Choctaw allies in check until he was ready to give battle. They were eager to fall upon their old enemy, the Chickasaws, while the French wished first of all to settle their account with the Natchez. As a result, the Choctaws spoiled all the plans by insisting on fighting in their own way. The French met with a severe repulse, and were compelled to retreat. The campaign was a miserable failure, and Bienville felt the defeat keenly. Diron D'Artaguette, who had once been Bienville's strong friend, was now very bitter against him and blamed him for the death of a brother.

The Second Expedition.—With his usual energy Bienville set to work to repair this disaster. He called on his government for soldiers and cannon; he sent to Canada for skilled

Indian fighters; sent "woods runners" among the Indian allies to keep them friendly, and sent engineers to pick out a better route to the Chickasaw country than the one previously followed. In 1739 seven hundred soldiers, with plenty of guns and ammunition, arrived from France, and for many months New Orleans was busy with preparations for a new war.

The government, however, showed its distrust of Bienville by sending over De Noailles to take command of this expedition. He was an excellent European soldier, but he knew nothing of fighting in the wilderness under conditions like those which he was to meet with in Louisiana. Never before had such a large and well-armed force been brought together in the colony as the one which set out in November, 1739, for a new war on the Chickasaws. It consisted of twelve hundred French and twenty-four hundred Indians. The plan was to reach the enemy by way of the Mississippi and Yazoo Rivers. Rains, however, hindered the progress; horses and cattle were lost in the swamps; the officers were jealous of one another and quarreled; provisions ran low; and about five hundred men died from disease. The army which had set out in such fine array finally turned back without ever striking a blow or even coming within a hundred miles of the enemy's villages. Some sort of a treaty was patched up with the Chickasaws the next year to make it appear that something had been accomplished, but these savages continued in spite of this to give trouble.

Recall of Bienville.—Although Bienville was not in command of this expedition, he had to share the blame for its failure, and the weary builder of the colony now felt that he could no longer be of use as governor and asked to be relieved of his duties. While awaiting the arrival of his successor he continued his efforts to promote the well-being of the colony. He urged his government to cease its paper money experiments, which had been so harmful to trade, and he tried to have it establish a school for boys just as the

Ursulines had established one for girls. In neither of these undertakings was he successful, but they show how much wiser he was than some of his superior officers and what he might have done for Louisiana if only his government had allowed him a free hand.

In his last years as governor it became Bienville's privilege to establish a charity hospital in New Orleans with funds that a sailor, Jean Louis, who died in 1736, had left to the city for that purpose. From this gift of a humble sea-faring man the present Charity Hospital had its beginning.

And now we see Bienville, forty-four years after that memorable voyage up the Mississippi River with his brother Iberville, leaving forever the colony which he had built almost with his own hands. He had given the best years of his life to the creation of Louisiana. In his pirogue he had journeyed many hundreds of tedious miles up and down the waterways, exploring the country, making treaties with the Indians, and building rude log forts for the protection of the white inhabitants. His life was one of exposure and almost constant danger. In the settlements he had to look after the welfare of the colonists, and at times even to struggle to save them from hunger. It is to him that the cities of Mobile and New Orleans owe their origin. Yet for all his labor and sacrifice he was poorly rewarded. Indeed, from his own people in Louisiana he got more abuse than gratitude while he was among them, and when he left the colony for the last time he returned to France a broken and humiliated old man. Yet his labors and sacrifices were not in vain, and the prosperous state of Louisiana to-day stands as a monument to his courage, foresight and persistence.

QUESTIONS

1. What caused the French government to decide to send Bienville back to Louisiana?
2. What three tasks was he instructed to perform?

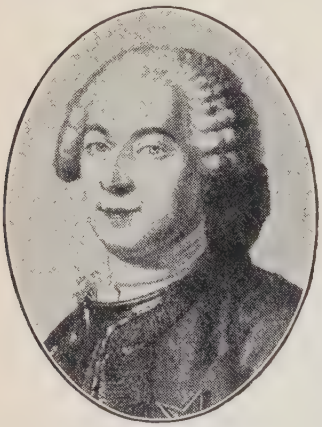
3. Give the details of his first expedition against the Chickasaws.
4. Describe the preparations for the second expedition. Who commanded it and why?
5. What was the result of this expedition?
6. How did it affect Bienville?
7. What improvements did he suggest before he returned to France?
8. Who was Jean Louis?
9. Tell in your own words all that Bienville did for Louisiana.

Chapèl in St. Roch's Cemetery
New Orleans

XIII

THE "GRAND MARQUIS"

The new governor who succeeded Bienville was a man of quite a different type from any that had held the office before him. He was the Marquis de Vaudreuil, and many of the Creoles felt much flattered that their king thought enough of the colony to send a great nobleman to rule over it. The arrival of the marquis was followed by many changes in the manners and customs of New Orleans. He set up a court modeled on a small scale after the royal court in Paris; he gave state dinners and grand balls, and wherever he went he was attended by a number of staff officers in full uniform. A large number of French and Swiss officers had arrived for service in the recent war with the Chickasaws, and others continued to come. They fell in readily with the governor's grand views of how an officer should conduct himself.



Pierre Riguad
Marquis de Vaudreuil

It was not long, then, before New Orleans ceased to be the rude frontier town of Bienville's time and began to become known for its gaiety and love of festivity, just as it is still noted to-day. Indeed the governor's fondness for display and military pomp did not always meet with approval in the colony, and the intendant at New Orleans once complained to the home government that Vaudreuil had brought matters to such a pass that "when the word

officer is uttered the world must quake," for "who says officer says all."

Improvement in Trade.—We have seen that the prosperity of the colony had been greatly hindered under the Company of the Indies by the company's unwise attempts to control all the trade. These hindrances were now removed, and the trade of the colony began to improve. Saw mills were set up near New Orleans, and much lumber began to be shipped out of the colony, as well as large quantities of furs, rice, tobacco and indigo. The furs were brought mainly from the upper Mississippi Valley. By 1743 there were over a thousand settlers in the Illinois Country, and a considerable traffic was growing up between this region and New Orleans. The settlers in the upper valley brought their flour and pork down the river at the time of "the January rise," and on reaching the New Orleans markets they would exchange their products for sugar, tobacco, cotton, and various articles of French manufacture which were badly needed in their distant homes in the wilderness.

Efforts were now made to encourage the further settlement of Louisiana. Every soldier, of whom there were many while Vaudreuil was governor, received a grant of land with supplies of tools and provisions when his enlistment ended, if he would promise to cultivate his holdings. A number of planters from Santo Domingo moved over to Louisiana, and as they were skilled at farming their coming did much to improve agriculture. Some Jesuits brought sugar cane from Hayti in 1751. It grew nicely, but it was many years before any one succeeded in making sugar from it. Vaudreuil also aided agriculture by requiring every planter along the river to keep up the levee on his land, on pain of forfeiting his property to the government.

The "King's Money."—In spite of this improvement, the colony was not yet really prosperous. Law's paper money had become almost worthless, and the government sought

to rid the colony of it by issuing slips of pasteboard to take its place. These were called "King's Money." One pasteboard note was given in exchange for three paper notes of the same face value. This was done in order to retire a large amount of the paper money from circulation and increase the value of what was left. This did not help matters very much, for so much of the "King's money" was printed and used to pay the soldiers and other expenses of the colony that before long it had no more value than the old paper money that it had replaced. Vaudreuil, like Cadillac, spent much labor in trying to find mines, and it would have been better for every one if these efforts had been employed in producing food.

The Indians continued to make trouble for the French. When the Chickasaws heard that a new governor had arrived they sent messengers to him and sought to make peace. Vaudreuil refused to treat with them unless they would make peace with his allies, the Choctaws, and also atone for the injuries to them. He insisted that they must also drive the English traders out of their villages, as he thought that these were largely to blame for all the trouble. The red men were not ready to make this last promise, and asked for time to think it over. They had grown so accustomed to the white man's wares that they could now hardly live without them. They told the governor, therefore, that they would drive away the English traders if the French would supply them with all the goods and ammunition that they needed. This the French could not do. Their warehouses were empty, and Vaudreuil could only make vague promises, while the English traders could give the Indians presents along with their promises. The governor wrote home and urged the sending of goods at once. but the king's ministers could find little money for this purpose, and much that should have gone to the colony went into the pockets of corrupt officials in France.

Indian Difficulties.—Vaudreuil could do little at this time

except to try to keep the Chickasaws and Choctaws hostile to each other, so that they would use up their strength fighting among themselves and not unite against the white men. The Choctaws were partly won over to the English, and split into two groups. There were many fights among them between the friends of the French on one side and the supporters of the English on the other. One of their chiefs, Red Shoe, caused the French much worry by constantly changing from a friend one day to an enemy the next. The French gave what help they could to the Choctaws who remained loyal to them, and by 1750 the latter had thoroughly subdued the Choctaw villages that had gone over to the English.

Two years later the Chickasaws again went on the war path, and Vaudreuil marched against them with seven hundred regular troops. The savages left their villages and took to the woods at his approach, and he had to content himself with burning their abandoned huts and destroying their corn fields.

King George's War.—The year after Vaudreuil reached Louisiana England and France went to war, and fighting broke out between the English and French in New England and Canada, but it did not extend to the colonies of the two countries in the South. This was known in the British colonies as King George's War. Peace was made in 1748, but English and French rivalry and jealousy were by no means at an end. The French king became aware of a growing danger that some day he might lose his American colonies to England. The English in the colonies of New England and New York were bringing pressure on Canada in many ways, and farther south traders, trappers and cattle men from Pennsylvania, Virginia, the Carolinas and Georgia were pushing westward across the mountains into lands which drained into the Mississippi and which France claimed as part of Louisiana.

The French government, therefore, transferred Vau-

dreuil to Canada, where the danger from the English seemed greatest, and where his military abilities might first be needed. He was succeeded as governor by the Baron de Kerlérec. During Vaudreuil's nine years in the colony the number of troops had increased from eight hundred to two thousand. Taking care of so many soldiers was expensive, and so were the habits of the "Grand Marquis," as he had come to be known in Louisiana. Indeed, the colony was costing more every year, and so far the mother country had found it a source of weakness rather than of strength.

QUESTIONS

1. Who succeeded Bienville as governor, and what type of man was he?
2. How did he conduct his office?
3. What sort of influence did he exert on the manners and customs of the colony?
4. What was done at this time to improve trade in Louisiana?
5. Describe the trade that sprang up between New Orleans and the Illinois country.
6. What was "King's money," and why was it issued?
7. What was done by the "Grand Marquis" to encourage agriculture?
8. What troubles occurred with the Indians while Vaudreuil was governor? Whom did he blame for most of the trouble?
9. Effect of King George's War on the attitude of France toward its colonies.
10. Where did Vaudreuil go, and who succeeded him?

XIV

FRANCE WITHDRAWS FROM NORTH AMERICA

The English in Virginia and Carolina claimed that their territory extended entirely across the continent, or, as they stated it, "from sea to sea." This claim therefore conflicted with that of the French to the whole region drained by the Mississippi River and its tributaries. So long as the English confined their settlements to the east of the Appalachian Mountains, and so long as the French settlements clung to the gulf coast and the Mississippi River, there was no direct occasion for dispute between the two nations concerning the boundaries of their colonial possessions. By 1750, however, the western limits of the British and the eastern limits of the French occupation were drawing very close together. The French had built a chain of forts from Lake Erie southward to the upper waters of the Ohio, where the city of Pittsburgh now stands. The English at the same time were pushing out into this disputed region from Virginia and Pennsylvania. They were not building forts as the French had done, but were setting up trading posts and seeking to win the Indians over to their side.

Washington's Mission.—In the same year that Vaudreuil was ordered to Canada to put the French colonies in a better state of defense the governor of Virginia sent a young surveyor named George Washington to the French post on the Ohio River with a warning to the commandant to withdraw his forces from this region, as they were regarded by the English as intruders. The French did not heed the summons to leave, and the next year Washington was sent against them with two companies of Virginia militia. The French held their ground with superior numbers and finally defeated Washington and forced him to surrender.

This fighting in the American wilderness marks the beginning of a struggle that was to extend around the whole world and to involve England, France, Prussia, Spain, Austria, Russia, Sweden, the West Indies, North America and India in a prolonged conflict. In America this is called the French and Indian War; in Europe it is known as the Seven Years' War.

England and France.—In the first period of this struggle the French won most of the battles, but the tide turned when the able British minister William Pitt came into office and put new energy into the conduct of the war. The British navy soon made it difficult for France to send any help to her distant colonies, and nearly every ship bound for Louisiana was captured. To be cut off in this way from the outside world caused no little hardship in the colony, which had never been able to produce all the things it needed. When no goods came from France the friendly Indians grew restless and threatened to go over to the English. During 1760 and 1761 France gave up all attempts to keep a fleet on the seas, and her colonies were left to shift for themselves. The British navy in the West Indies captured one French island possession after another, and in Louisiana the people were in constant fear that their colony would be the next to be attacked, but no invasion came.

For a time Spain kept out of the war, but when her King Charles III, a cousin of Louis XV, saw the English gradually driving the French from Canada and the West Indies he began to fear that if England became too powerful in America his own colonies would be in great danger. Accordingly, he entered the war as an ally of France. This step cost him dearly, for the British forces in the West Indies, fresh from their victories over the French, attacked and captured Havana. From there they prepared to move against Louisiana, but a terrible scourge of fever swept their ranks and caused so many deaths that this plan was abandoned.

Treaty of Paris.—The war was ended by the Treaty of

Paris in 1763. Though there had been no fighting in Louisiana, this treaty had immense effect on the future of the colony. Louisiana was divided into two parts. All of it east of the Mississippi, except the "island of New Orleans" (that is, the strip of land between Bayou Manchac, the river, and the lakes) was given to England. Spain was very anxious to regain Cuba, which she had lost when the British captured its chief city, Havana, and in order to recover it she had to give up Florida to England.

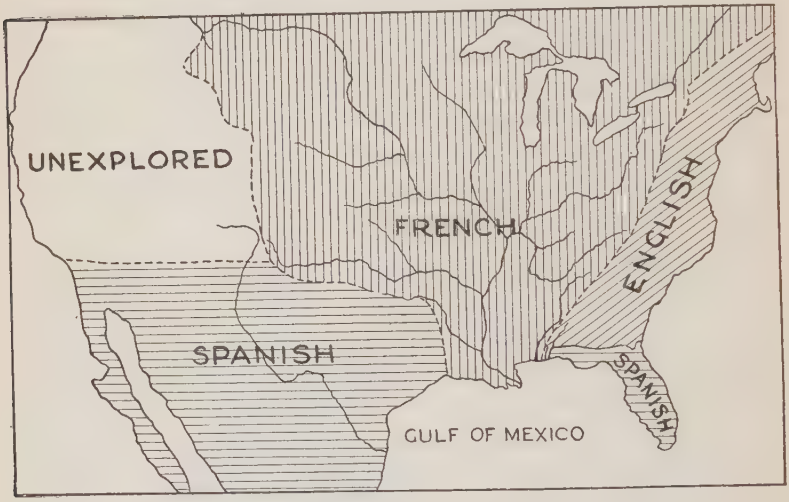
The French ministers attached very little importance to what was left of Louisiana. They also were in honor bound to repay their Spanish allies for the loss of territory, and they offered the English all of Louisiana west of the Mississippi if they would give Florida back to Spain. The English, however, valued the peninsula of Florida more highly than all the vast area still left as Louisiana, of which they then knew very little, and they refused to make the exchange.

A Gift to Spain.—When he was unable to repay the Spanish king in this way for what the war had cost him, Louis XV, on the advice of his prime minister, the Duke of Choiseul, sent a letter to Charles III making him a gift of Louisiana. The treaty had brought the English to the banks of the Mississippi and had also given them the right to free navigation of the river. Under these conditions the colony seemed to have little value for France, and Louis XV without doubt was glad to get rid of a piece of property that had always been a costly burden. Charles III accepted the gift rather unwillingly. The tranfer of Louisiana to Spain was kept secret, and the colonists for a time knew nothing about their change of rulers.

As a result of the treaty, all the French settlements east of the Mississippi except those on the "island of New Orleans" passed under English control, and the flag of Great Britain was soon flying over Natchez, Baton Rouge, Mobile and Pensacola. Some of the French settlers and Indians

friendly to France, rather than take the oath of allegiance to England, gathered up all their belongings and moved to the vicinity of New Orleans, little knowing that they were soon to come under the rule of another king than Louis XV.

Soon after the war English vessels began coming up the river in considerable numbers on their way to the posts above New Orleans. The English built a fort on the river at the head of Bayou Manchac, which they called Fort Bute, in honor of their prime minister. Here they carried on

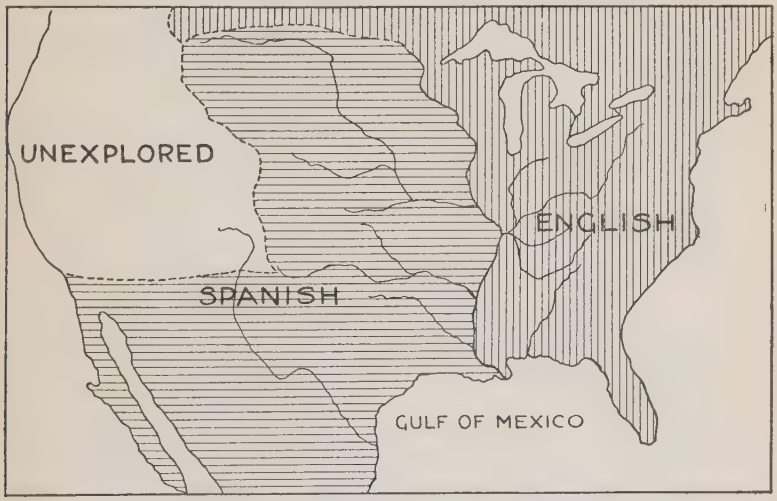


American Colonial Possessions before 1763

considerable trade with Louisiana, although this was forbidden by law, as the home government wished to retain all the trade of the colony for its own benefit. Frequently also the vessels passing New Orleans smuggled goods into the city. Just above the city limits there was a tree at which English vessels would sometimes tie up and engage in unlawful trade with the colonists. As Manchac was the first place at which an English ship had a right to stop, this tree got the name of "Little Manchac," and "going to Little Man-

chac" was a popular business whenever a vessel with badly needed merchandise stopped above the city.

Baron de Kerlérec.—Governor Kerlérec, who succeeded the "Grand Marquis," held his position in the colony for ten years, but his experience was as stormy as that of his predecessors. The intendant accused him of wasting the public money, and he in turn charged the intendant with holding



American Colonial Possessions after 1763

back supplies from the colonists and soldiers when they were cut off by the war from France and were clamoring for food. No governor could have satisfied the colonists during that trying time, but Kerlérec was a blunt naval officer, and his manner was so different from that of the courtly Vaudreuil that he suffered by contrast. His enemies finally secured his recall, and when he reached France he was arrested and thrown into the grim old Paris prison called the Bastile.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the French claims to Louisiana conflict with the British claims to Virginia and the Carolinas?
2. Why was there no trouble over these claims until about 1750?
3. What part did George Washington play in this dispute?
4. What countries were drawn into the French and Indian War?
5. Describe the course of that war.
6. What was the effect of Spain's entrance into the war?
7. Why did not the English take Louisiana?
8. How did the Treaty of Paris alter the boundaries of Louisiana?
9. Why did Louis XV give away what was left of the province?
10. What was "Little Manchac"?
11. What kind of governor did Kerlérec make?

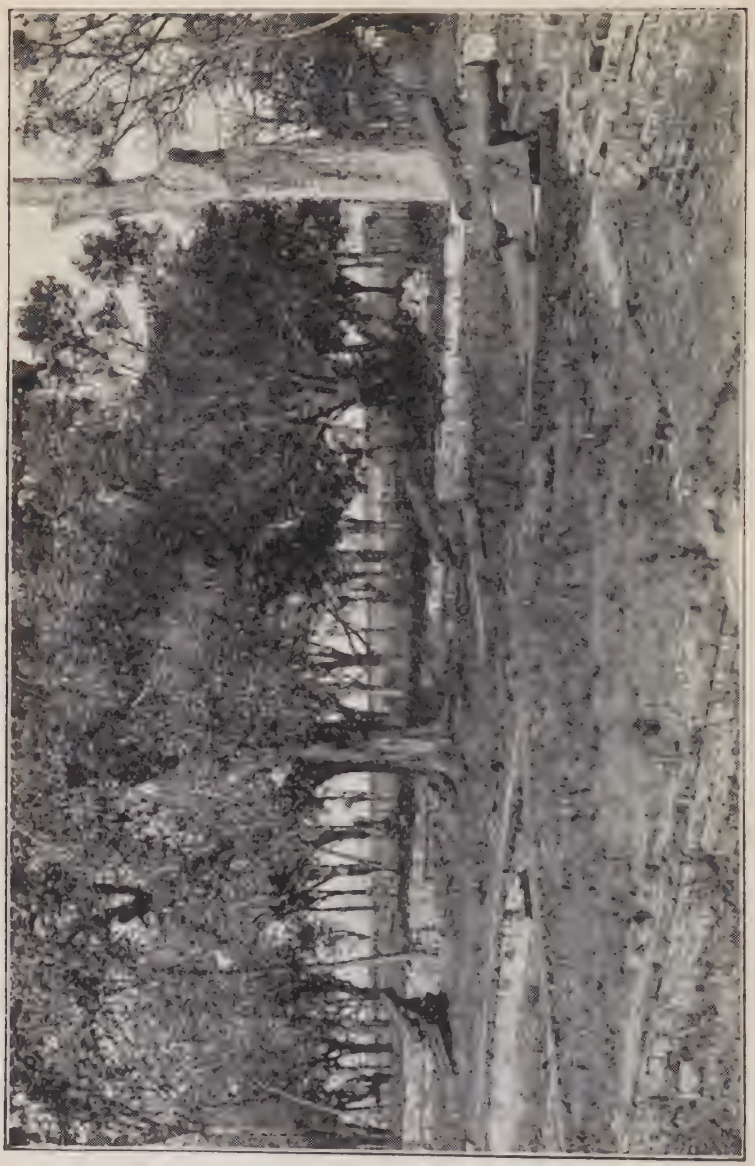
XV

SPAIN RECEIVES LOUISIANA

After the Treaty of Paris, the French government, knowing that what was left of Louisiana would soon be turned over to Spain, did not think it worth while to name a new governor, and D'Abbadie, who was sent over to take Kerlérec's place, was designated simply as director. During the war the French had sent most of the troops in Louisiana to Canada, where they were more badly needed, and only a small force was left in New Orleans under the command of Captain Charles Philippe Aubry.

Hard Times in the Colony.—Soon after his arrival D'Abbadie wrote home that there was much destitution in Louisiana, and that three men out of four were bankrupt. After the colonists had been cut off so completely from the rest of the world, and for such a long time, a condition of this sort could hardly surprise any one. D'Abbadie, however, laid the blame for most of the trouble on the large amount of almost worthless paper money in the colony, and showed that this made it difficult for the people to conduct their business on sound principles. The leading merchants of New Orleans presented him with a petition in which they complained of their trouble with paper money and criticized D'Abbadie for giving a single company the sole right to trade with the Indians. D'Abbadie did not like the tone in which the merchants addressed him, and in reporting the matter to his government he called their complaint an act of sedition. This was an unjust opinion, but the affair showed that the people were restless and discontented.

On April 21, 1764, a year and a half after Louisiana had been given to Spain, D'Abbadie received official notice of the transfer and was ordered to turn the colony over to the new



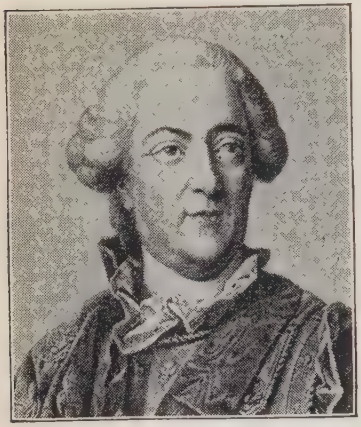
Spanish Fort on Lake Pontchartrain

governor who was to be sent to Louisiana by the Spanish king. The publication of this order in New Orleans created great amazement. The people were filled with grief, anger and fear. They were grieved to be cut off from their mother country, to which they felt a loyal devotion, even though many of them had never visited it. It likewise made them angry to think that their king should hand over his faithful subjects to a foreign ruler without taking the trouble to learn their wishes in the matter, and that he should have kept them in ignorance of the transfer for such a long time. The news that they had been given to Spain also filled them with fear; for the Louisianians had the Spanish provinces of Mexico, Florida and the West Indies for neighbors, and they had heard many stories of the cruelty and tyranny of the Spanish colonial officers. They disliked, too, the prospect of having to change their laws, language and customs as well as their flag.

Petition to the King.—Spain was so slow in taking over its new possession that the people began to hope that the French king might be persuaded to change his mind if they showed him their great loyalty to France. So a great meeting was called in New Orleans, and every district of the colony was represented at the gathering. One of the leaders in this movement was Lafrénière, the attorney-general. He made an eloquent speech, and then presented a petition or address, to the king pleading with him not to cut the people of Louisiana off from their beloved mother country. This was adopted, and Jean Milhet, a wealthy New Orleans merchant, was selected to go to France and present it to the king in person.

In Paris Milhet looked up Bienville, now a feeble man over eighty years old and living in retirement. Together they called on Choiseul, the prime minister, and the gray-haired explorer and builder of Louisiana pleaded eloquently that France should not throw away the great dominion over the seas which he had labored to give her. The minister listened

courteously and promised his aid, but it is to be remembered that it was on his advice that Louisiana was given to Spain, and he was not likely at this time to change his mind. Milhet made repeated efforts through many weary months to secure favorable consideration for the petition, but he was never allowed to see the king, and was continually put off with promises. Meanwhile, Louis XV, shut up in his luxurious palace and indulging in riotous living with his favorites, never once dreamed of all the unhappiness his act had caused a people whose loyalty and respect he did not deserve. To the people of Louisiana their king was still "Louis the Well-Beloved," as he had been to all France twenty years before. Far removed from Paris, the Louisianians did not know that this monarch in his later years had turned to ways of wickedness and had become the most despised ruler in all Europe. In all their appeals to the mother country, therefore, they made their devotion center around a king whose misrule had brought France to the brink of ruin, and for whom his other unhappy subjects had nothing but curses and hatred.



Louis XV, King of France

Captain Aubry.—In 1765 D'Abbadie died, and the only royal officer to take his place was Captain Philippe Aubry, commander of the French troops in Louisiana, and a soldier who had served with distinction during the recent war. In the meantime the excitement that had followed the news of the transfer of the colony gradually died down. As month after month passed, with no sign that Spain was planning to take over the new possession, the people began to hope

that Milhet's mission had proved successful and that France had changed her mind about ceding the colony to Spain. Fourteen months had gone by since D'Abbadie had received orders to turn over the province to the new Spanish governor when he arrived, and the people had recovered from the shock of this news and were going about their affairs as usual. Then one day in July, 1765, a ship arrived bringing a letter to the authorities from Don Antonio de Ulloa, who was at that time in Havana, and who announced to them his appointment as governor by the king of Spain. He notified them that he would soon arrive and take up his duties. So all hope that Louisiana might remain under the French flag was dashed to the ground.

Nevertheless, weeks and then months went by and nothing happened. The French flag still floated over the government buildings in New Orleans, and French troops were still quartered in the city barracks. Spain seemed as unwilling to take over the colony as the French ministers had been anxious to get rid of it.

QUESTIONS

1. How was Louisiana to be governed until Spain took over the colony?
2. What was the condition of the colony after the French and Indian War?
3. What action by the New Orleans merchants indicated that the people were discontented?
4. How long was it after Louisiana was given to Spain before the colonists were notified?
5. What did they do on hearing the news?
6. Why did the people object to the transfer to Spain?
7. Who was Jean Milhet, and what did he do in Paris?
8. Who was Philippe Aubry?
9. How did the colonists finally learn that Spain was really preparing to take possession?

XVI

THE ACADIAN EXILES

The people of Louisiana were not the only French in America who had to pass under a foreign flag. Just fifty years before Louisiana was transferred to Spain, the peninsula of Acadia, in the extreme eastern part of Canada, had been ceded by France to Great Britain. Acadia was an older colony than Louisiana, with a large population and many villages of hard-working farmers. The Acadians were near-neighbors of the New England colonists, and these two people were so different in customs, language and religion that they were never on friendly terms. Whenever trouble arose between England and France the New Englanders and the Acadians were sure to take up the quarrel. For the defense of Acadia the French had built a powerful fortress at Port Royal, and during King William's War (1689-97) the New Englanders surprised the world by capturing this stronghold.

Great Britain Gets Acadia.—When peace was made Great Britain restored Port Royal to France, and this created much discontent among the people of New England, who wished to retain the fortress as a fruit of their great victory and at the same time to prevent its being used against them in the event of another war. Five years later England and France fell to fighting again, and New England troops, with the aid of British marines, captured Port Royal a second time. When peace was made in 1713 Acadia remained in the hands of Great Britain.

The British changed the name of the province to Nova Scotia (meaning New Scotland), and in honor of their ruler, Queen Anne, they renamed Port Royal Annapolis, which means the city of Anne. It proved to be easier to change these names, however, than to change the affec-

tions of the people. Although they had become British subjects, the Acadians remained French at heart, just as the people of Louisiana did later when their colony was given to Spain. The Acadians greatly disliked being handed over to a foreign ruler without their own wishes being considered, and most of them refused to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain. Some of them also left Nova Scotia for Canada, where they would still be under the French flag, but the British officials did not wish to see the French settlements in Canada strengthened in this way and urged them to remain.

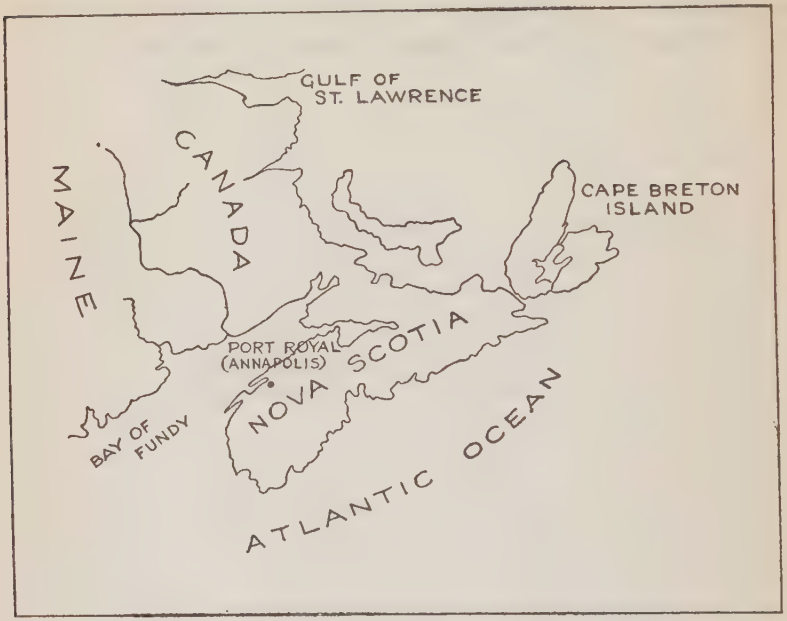
When war broke out again in 1744 the British did not expect the Acadians to fight against their former flag and countrymen, and they only insisted that they remain neutral. Most of them did so, but their sympathies were naturally with their neighbors in Canada rather than with those in the other English colonies. Some of them, however, were unable to resist the inclination to assist the Canadians.

Charles Lawrence.—A short time before the outbreak of the French and Indian War Governor Hopson of Nova Scotia sailed for England, leaving Charles Lawrence, the lieutenant-governor, in control of the colony. Hopson had been a kind and well-disposed governor, and during his administration many Acadians who had gone to Canada returned to Nova Scotia; but when Lawrence took control he announced that no more of these should be allowed to return unless they took the oath of allegiance to Great Britain. As France and England were then about to go to war again, Lawrence grew more and more distrustful of the Acadians. Finally he decided that they were a danger and decided to remove them from the colony.

This was done without orders from the British government, which knew nothing of Lawrence's decision until it had been carried out. Indeed, two weeks after Lawrence ordered the removal of the Acadians instructions were sent

to him from London not to disturb the French in Nova Scotia. Sailing vessels moved slowly, however, and the orders arrived too late.

The expulsion of the Acadians from Nova Scotia was attended with much cruelty on the part of the British sol-



Where the Acadians of Louisiana Came from

diers and much suffering on the part of the unfortunate colonists. More than six thousand persons were driven from their homes and crowded aboard ships. As they sailed away to unknown places they looked back upon the smoking ruins of their houses, which Lawrence had ordered to be burned. Efforts were made to keep families together, but owing to the confusion and the scarcity of ships the members of some families were cruelly separated.

The exiles were scattered among all the English colonies, but most of them were landed in Massachusetts, Penn-

sylvania, Maryland and South Carolina. Wherever they were carried they were coldly received, for they were a penniless, broken-hearted people, speaking a strange language, and friendly to a nation which the English colonists regarded as an enemy. As soon, therefore, as they were able to travel the exiles sought to find new homes under the French flag. Some went northward to Canada, and others southward to Santo Domingo and other islands of the French West Indies.

Welcomed in Louisiana.—In the tropics they were not happy, for they were too poor to buy slaves as the wealthy planters did, and they could not work the fields under the blazing sun. After ten years of exile and wandering some of the Acadians began to drift into Louisiana. In the first five months of 1765 six hundred and fifty of them arrived in New Orleans, most of them in a state of destitution. They were at last among friends and countrymen, and in a land which, though very different from their northern home, gave them a chance to recover from their misfortunes, and to live in comfort and plenty.

The first arrivals were supplied with tools, live stock and food and received grants of land along Bayou Têche and in the prairie section farther west. As others came they were settled along the river below New Orleans and above the city as far as Baton Rouge and Pointe Coupée, and also along Bayou Lafourche. The settlements along the Mississippi came in time to be known as the Upper and Lower Acadian Coasts. In these districts the Acadians slowly recovered from their misfortunes, and their children in time became as happy and prosperous as their forefathers had been in Nova Scotia.

The removal and the wanderings of the Acadians have been described by Longfellow in his beautiful poem *Evangeline,* and the state of Louisiana has honored the memory of the exiles by naming one of its parishes Evangeline after the heroine of this poem and another Acadia after the

former home of the Acadians. In the town of St. Martinsville there stands a large oak tree under which lies buried the Acadian girl Emmeline Labiche. It was upon the events of her life that Longfellow is said to have based the story of Evangeline.

QUESTIONS

1. What and where was Acadia?
2. Why did it have trouble with its English-speaking neighbors?
3. How did the British get possession of it?
4. What changes did they make?
5. How did the Acadians like their new rulers, and how did they act toward them?
6. How had Governor Hopson treated the Acadians? What was the attitude of Charles Lawrence toward the Acadians?
7. Why did Lawrence decide to remove the Acadians?
8. State the main facts about the expulsion.
9. Describe the coming of the Acadians to Louisiana.
10. Who was Emmeline Labiche?
11. What parishes in Louisiana have names that were given them in memory of the Acadians?

From an old print

Port Royal

Built by the French for the Defense of Acadia
The Old Fortress is now Preserved as a Canadian National Park

XVII

DON ANTONIO DE ULLOA

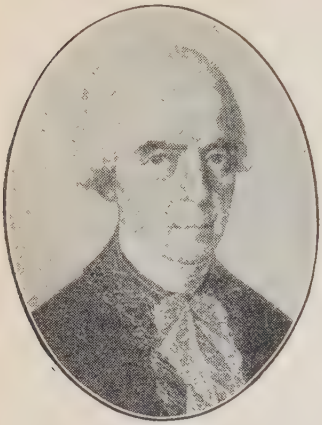
On a cold, rainy day in March, 1766, over three years after the cession of Louisiana to Spain, Don Antonio de Ulloa, the new Spanish governor, landed in New Orleans. Captain Philippe Aubry, acting as governor for France, formed his few troops in the public square to receive him, and the city showed him due respect, although there was a coolness in its welcome.

A Great Scientist.—Charles III was a much better man and a much better ruler than Louis XV, and he thought that he was giving Louisiana a good governor. Ulloa was a naval officer, fifty years of age, who had written learned works on geography and astronomy, and was known throughout Europe as a scholar and scientist. The French were not strangers to him, as he had worked with French officers on a scientific expedition to South America.

Ulloa had sailed from Havana with only ninety soldiers, because he expected to add the French troops to his own after his arrival. But the French soldiers refused to serve under the Spanish flag, and the ninety soldiers were not enough to guard and protect the whole province. Ulloa therefore decided not to take possession of Louisiana until he could get more troops from Havana. It was arranged that Aubry in the meantime should continue in charge of the government and issue orders in his own name, but under Ulloa's direction.

This proved to be a bad plan, for the people looked upon Aubry as a mere mouthpiece of a foreigner, and at the same time they did not regard Ulloa as their real governor because the French flag still remained over New Orleans. Ulloa's delay in taking full possession also encouraged the

French to hope that they might yet escape from passing under Spanish rule. The arrangement was confusing. Aubry said: "I command for the king of France, and at the same time govern the colony as if it belonged to the king of Spain."



Don Antonio de Ulloa

Ulloa committed another blunder by refusing to comply with the request of the Superior Council to show it the king's orders directing him to act as governor. He informed the Council that he recognized no authority but Aubry's. His refusal to deal with this body, in which sat some of the leading men of the colony, appeared to its members like a blow at their liberties.

The Colonists Uneasy.—Although he had not taken possession of the colony Ulloa visited the various military posts and ordered a census to be taken of the inhabitants. He had brought with him a chest of gold and silver coin, and he used some of this to pay the soldiers of France serving under Aubry. One would suppose that the people who had suffered so much from the worthless paper money issued by the Company of the Indies and the royal government would welcome the sight of real money. At this time a given amount of paper would buy only about a fourth as much as the same amount of money in gold coin. A rumor had been started, however, that when the Spaniards came they would refuse to receive any of the paper money of Louisiana, and that the quantities of it in the hands of the colonists would become worthless. Ulloa calmed the people's fears on this point, and offered to exchange some of his gold for paper money, but the colonists spoiled this by

insisting that he give them the same amount in gold as they gave him in paper. This was four times what the paper was worth, and naturally Ulloa did not consent.

You will remember that the French governors, including even Bienville, had many quarrels with the colonists. Every governor up to this time had been accused of wicked and unlawful conduct. If this happened when the governor was a Frenchman, what was to be expected when the new governor was a foreigner? Ulloa was without doubt an honest and well-meaning governor, but as a naval officer he had become accustomed to command instant obedience. His stern actions therefore alarmed the colonists and made them fear that Louisiana was going to be ruled as tyrannically as Mexico then was. In spite of his harsh manner Ulloa was a well-bred gentleman, and the attitude of the colonists toward him greatly wounded his pride. Few people in the colony at this time could understand the feelings of a great scholar of a sensitive nature.

Much excitement arose in New Orleans when Aubry, at Ulloa's command, and in obedience to orders received from Spain, issued a decree permitting French ships to come to Louisiana only on condition that they first obtained a passport from a Spanish official. Before landing the cargo, however, the agents of the vessel were required to submit to the governor a list of prices which they proposed to ask for their goods. The cargo was then to be examined by reliable persons named by the governor, and if the prices were thought to be too high permission to unload the vessel would be refused, and the owner of the goods would have to find another market. The owner was also required to accept paper money in payment for his goods, and on leaving port was required to take at least a third of his cargo in products of the colony.

This order permitted much greater freedom of trade in Louisiana than was enjoyed by the other Spanish colonies, with which foreign vessels were not permitted to trade at

all, and from which all goods had to be shipped direct to some port in Spain. The control over prices which it provided was meant to protect the people from what we now call profiteering. Frequently in the past the owners of a cargo of goods would take advantage of the scarcity in the colony to charge very high prices, and would accept only gold or silver in payment.

The colony, however, was still dependent on ships to bring it the necessary articles of food and clothing, and it was feared by the merchants that this order, by driving away all trading vessels, would ruin their business and also lead to much discomfort and suffering on the part of the people. The chief merchants of New Orleans therefore signed a petition asking that the order be suspended till their side of the case could be heard, and Aubry agreed to do so.

The Absent Governor.—In the midst of this excitement Ulloa left the city and sailed down to the post at the mouth of the river known as the Balize. No one knew the reason for his sudden departure, but it was thought that he had gone to meet more troops coming from Cuba. The Balize was a lonely, marshy spot, but Ulloa raised the Spanish flag there and remained throughout a dreary winter and well into the following spring. He had his books and his scientific instruments with him, and was probably happier there than among the hostile population in New Orleans. Aubry and other officers made trips down the river to report on their duties and receive instructions, but if they knew the governor's purpose in staying there they revealed it to no one.

Finally, however, it became known that Ulloa was awaiting the arrival of his promised bride from Peru, the Marchioness of Abrado, a young and handsome widow of great wealth. The lady kept him waiting for seven months, and when the ship in which she was a passenger finally arrived the couple were married by the governor's chaplain and

proceeded to New Orleans. This marriage did not increase the governor's popularity. His wife was a foreigner and did not mingle freely with the ladies of the city. Because she was a woman of wealth and rank some of them felt that she held herself above them. They were also offended by her apparent fondness for the native women she brought with her from Peru, whose society she seemed to prefer to that of the French people of the capital.

While Ulloa was still at the Balize awaiting his bride Jean Milhet returned from France after two years' absence. So long as he remained abroad the people had hopes that his mission would have some results, but now when he returned and reported that he had never been able even to see the king the restlessness and discontent in the colony were greatly increased.

In his travels over the colony Ulloa had raised the Spanish flag at the posts at Balize, on Bayou Manchac, on the Mississippi opposite Natchez, and on the Missouri River. Everywhere else the French flag was still flying. The people could not serve two masters, and their life in the distant colony had developed in them such a strong love of freedom that they were now hardly willing to serve any master at all, and they began to discuss among themselves their chances of gaining their independence.

QUESTIONS

1. What sort of man was Governor Ulloa?
2. Describe his arrival in the colony.
3. Why did he postpone taking possession of Louisiana?
4. In what way was this a blunder?
5. What was Ulloa's attitude toward the Superior Council?
6. Describe the quarrel over paper money between Ulloa and the Creoles.
7. What orders did Aubry issue concerning trade with French vessels, and why did this anger the merchants?
8. Why did Ulloa stay so long at the Balize?

9. Did his marriage make him more popular with the people? Why?
10. At what points did Ulloa raise the Spanish flag? Could the colony be half French and half Spanish?
11. Tell about the return of Jean Milhet from France.

Old Spanish
Coat-of-Arms

XVIII

THE REVOLUTION OF 1768

By 1768 the feeling among the French against the Spanish had grown so strong that many of the leading men in the colony were in favor of active resistance. They did not believe that they were rebelling against their own ruler when they urged such a course, because the French flag still waved over the capital of Louisiana, and they still regarded themselves as subjects of Louis XV and not of Charles III.

The men who were most active in this movement were Chauvin de Lafrénière, the attorney-general of the province, and Joseph Villeré, his brother-in-law, who was commandant of the German Coast. Some eight or ten other prominent colonists were working with them. Among these were Jean Milhet, who had formerly gone to Paris to protest against the transfer of the colony to Spain, and his brother Joseph.

Lafrénière.—The leader of this group was Lafrénière. His father had come from Canada as a poor man in the days of Bienville, but had prospered enough in his new home to be able to send his son to France for an education. When the young man came home from France he dressed so elegantly and had such polished manners that his friends gave him the nickname of "Louis XIV." Lafrénière and his associates now began to hold meetings at the house of a Madame Pradel, just outside the city limits. There they would gather after dark, one at a time, so as not to attract attention, and make their plans. They kept these so well to themselves that Aubry and Ulloa never suspected that any trouble was brewing until the leaders of the revolt were ready to strike.

On October twenty-eighth revolution broke out. A band of armed men from the Acadian Coast, led by Noyan, a

nephew of Bienville, and another group from the German Coast, led by Villeré, marched into the town. There were cannon at the Tchoupitoulas gate, on the upper side of the city, by which Aubry's soldiers might have held them at bay, but some one had spiked the guns during the night. Colonists from below New Orleans also came up and joined the invaders. Aubry had so few soldiers that he offered no resistance and advised Ulloa and his wife to go for protection aboard a Spanish war-ship lying in the river.

The insurgents held a mass meeting and Lafrénière made a fiery speech, after which a petition to the Superior Council containing a list of grievances and urging the expulsion of Ulloa from Louisiana, as a usurper, was signed by five hundred and sixty of the leading men of the colony.

The next day the Superior Council met to act on the petition, and Lafrénière again led the attack against Spanish rule. He called on the Council to restore the people "to their sovereign Lord, King Louis, the well beloved"; and declared that the colonists now offered "their treasures and their blood to live and die for France." Aubry also went before the Council and warned them that they had no right to remove a governor appointed by the king, and that such action would certainly bring its penalties. The Council, however, were of the same mind as Lafrénière and ordered Ulloa to leave the colony within three days. Nearly a thousand persons surrounded the place where the meeting was held, and when they heard what the Council had done they greeted the news with loud cheers, and the city was soon in the midst of a joyous celebration over the expulsion of the Spaniard.

Ulloa Expelled.—Ulloa was told of what had occurred and prepared to leave. The Spanish ship on which he had embarked was in need of repairs, and so he transferred his family to a French ship tied to the bank and about ready to sail. The next morning before daybreak a party of young men who had been attending a wedding celebration

came strolling along the levee, and when they reached the governor's ship they began to sing patriotic French songs and to give cheers for King Louis. One of the most reckless of the lot finally cut or untied the cables holding the ship to the shore, and the vessel drifted some distance downstream before the crew brought it to anchor. The next day it hoisted its sails and bore the unpopular governor back to Havana. This was revolution. Louisiana thus issued its declaration of independence against a powerful Spanish monarch eight years before the English colonies to the east rose in revolt against George III of England.

An Appeal to France.—Now that they had got rid of their Spanish governor the insurgents hoped that France might at last listen to their appeal and take them again under its protection. They therefore chose three of their number to go to France and again lay their case before the government, and also prepared an address to the king setting forth the misdeeds of Ulloa and the wrongs which the colonists had suffered.

Aubry had shown no sympathy with his countrymen in this affair, and reported the events as he saw them to the ministers in France. "Violence is the order of the day," he wrote. He referred to the leaders of the revolution as "ten or twelve firebrands" who were ruling the country as they pleased, and declared that they ought to be driven out of the colony.

The Spanish war-ship still remained in the river at New Orleans as a grim reminder of the power which the revolutionists had challenged. The Superior Council several times ordered it to leave port, but Aubry placed troops on the levee for its protection, and it remained in the harbor for several months, till its repairs were completed. When it sailed the last signs of Spanish rule disappeared, and the revolution for the time was successful.

Causes of the Revolt.—While Ulloa had been a failure as a governor, the colonists did not present proofs that he

was really a bad official. Much of their ill will toward him was due to their bitter hatred of the idea of being turned over to Spain. They detested the thought of Spanish rule, such as prevailed in Mexico and Cuba, being set up in Louisiana. In its address to the French king after the Revolution, the Council declared that as Frenchmen the people of the colony would never be able to submit themselves to "the exclusiveness and despotism practised in all Spanish governments." They also were led to resist partly because of their love for their mother country, France, and partly because of their desire for independence.

It soon became evident that the French government did not greatly appreciate the expressions of loyalty that were sent to it from its former subjects in Louisiana. The king's minister, the Duke of Choiseul, was much disturbed lest the outbreak in New Orleans might cause King Charles of Spain to change his mind about accepting Louisiana as a gift, and he lost no time in letting the delegates sent to Paris by the revolutionists see that he looked upon them as trouble-makers.

When it appeared that France would not uphold them in their resistance to Spain and in their loyalty to the mother country the revolutionists turned to the English, whose rule they preferred to that of Spain, and sent several of their number to the English governor at Pensacola to find out if he would aid them in passing from Spanish to British control. That official, however, would have nothing to do with such a scheme, as it would have given great offense to Spain and might have involved England in another war with that country. Moreover, a successful revolt by Louisiana would have set a bad example for the English colonies, which were already showing signs of desiring their independence, and no British governor was willing to do anything that would encourage such a feeling.

Talk of Independence.—After failing to get help either

from France or England, a few of the leaders began to talk of complete independence; that is, of making Louisiana a separate republic. The more prudent among the colonists saw, however, that a few thousand people in the wilderness could not stand alone against such a powerful nation as Spain then was, and that other countries in Europe which also had colonies would probably aid Spain in subduing a move for independence, for fear that the revolt might spread to their own possessions. The months following the departure of Ulloa were therefore a period of great anxiety for the people of Louisiana.

QUESTIONS

1. Did the colonists think of themselves as rebels when they decided to resist Ulloa? Why?
2. Name five of the leaders in this resistance.
3. Which of these was the most prominent? How did he and his associates plan the uprising?
4. Describe the outbreak of the revolution.
5. What action was taken by the Superior Council?
6. Describe Ulloa's departure.
7. What was done to arouse interest in France in the colony?
8. What was the attitude of Aubry toward the revolution?
9. What were the chief causes of the outbreak?
10. Describe the attitude of the French government toward the revolution.
11. What steps were taken by the revolutionists looking toward complete independence?

XIX

DON ALEXANDRO O'REILLY

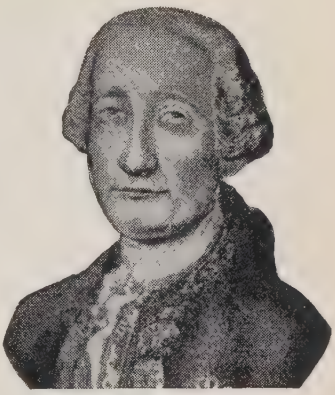
When the news of the revolution in Louisiana reached Spain the king called his ministers together and asked them to advise him whether the troublesome colony should not be given back to France. As only one of them thought that it should be returned, it was decided to keep it. The ministers also agreed that some punishment ought to be imposed on the insurgents so that their example would not have a bad effect on other Spanish colonies in the New World.

Spain Takes Action.—Accordingly, Don Alexandro O'Reilly, Inspector-General of the Royal Armies of Spain, was ordered to sail at once for Havana. There he was to collect as many soldiers and as much ammunition and other materials as he might need and then go on to Louisiana. On his arrival in the colony he was to take formal possession in the name of the king of Spain, and then bring the leaders of the revolution to punishment. O'Reilly was ordered, however, not to resort to harsh measures, and only to send out of the colony those who deserved more severe punishment, as it was the king's desire to be mild in his dealings with his new subjects.

In the meantime the leaders of the revolution in Louisiana had come to the conclusion that there was no escape from Spanish rule, and they were hoping that by submitting fully and promptly when the next governor arrived they might obtain pardon for their resistance to Ulloa. Eight anxious months had passed since that official had been sent out of the colony, and no one knew what the next step of the Spanish government would be.

A New Master.—Then one morning in July a boat came

up the river bringing the news that General O'Reilly was at the Balize with a huge fleet of war-ships. Such news created much excitement, and the people saw that the Spanish government was sending a large enough force to stamp out all resistance to its authority.



Don Alexandro O'Reilly

General Alexandro O'Reilly, the commander of this expedition, was a native of Ireland, but when quite young he had gone to Spain along with many others of his countrymen to escape the religious persecution common in his day. He joined an Irish regiment in the service of Spain and served in it with distinction and later saw service also in the armies of Spain's allies, France and Austria. Four years before he came to Louisiana he had saved the king's life during an insurrection in Madrid. For these reasons he stood very high in the royal favor, and had been promoted to the rank of major-general.

Quite naturally the revolutionists were filled with dismay on learning that the king of Spain had sent to govern them one of his highest officers and one of the greatest generals in all Europe. This showed that their new ruler was very much in earnest about making a Spanish province out of Louisiana. When the news came that O'Reilly's fleet was in the river two "hot-heads," Joseph Petit and Pierre Marquis, made fiery speeches on the public square, urging resistance to the Spaniards, but they soon saw that very few people favored such a course and withdrew.

Two days later, July twenty-sixth, Aubry summoned the people to meet in the public square, and there announced to them that the government of Louisiana would be transferred to General O'Reilly as soon as he reached the city.

He warned them that nothing but prompt submission on their part could ward off the punishment with which they were threatened, and promised that all would be well if they offered no resistance.

A Mission of Peace.—Lafrénière, Marquis and Milhet decided to go down the river to meet the new governor and make their submission in person. Aubry encouraged them to do this. O'Reilly received them kindly, and gave close attention to an address from Lafrénière, who assured the general of the willingness of the people to give full obedience to their new sovereign and declared that their recent revolution was directed against the misgovernment of Ulloa and not against the king of Spain. To this O'Reilly replied that he would form no conclusions on that matter until he had been able to ascertain the whole truth. He assured the Frenchmen that his doing the least injury to any one would cause him deep regret, and that he was pleased to see the step they had just taken. He could not resist, however, asking them how they could ever suppose that the king of France, a near kinsman of the king of Spain, would have assisted them in resisting the latter, who was one of the most powerful rulers in Europe, or have "lent a willing ear to the clamors of a seditious people."

When O'Reilly used the word "seditious" Marquis interrupted him with an objection, whereupon the general replied gently: "Be at ease; I have already told you, gentlemen, that I will listen with pleasure to your arguments, when the time shall come." O'Reilly then entertained the visitors at dinner and treated them so courteously that when they left him to return to the city they had a high admiration for his qualities and hoped that the troubles of the past would be forgotten.

A Great Ceremony.—O'Reilly's fleet appeared before New Orleans on August fifteenth. While his ships of war were tediously working their way against the river, Aubry rowed down to meet him and together they drew up plans for the

formal transfer of the colony to Spain. The general's landing was wholly different from that of Ulloa, who as we have seen brought only ninety soldiers and landed on a cold, rainy day. O'Reilly had gathered nearly three thousand of the best-trained soldiers to be found in Cuba. His twenty-four ships of war, moored along the levee, were gaily decorated with flags and made the most imposing naval spectacle ever before seen on the Mississippi. At the appointed hour a cannon boomed from one of the ships and the troops, fully armed and in gorgeous uniforms, came ashore and marched to the place d'Armes (now Jackson Square) where they lined up on three sides. The French troops under Aubry had already been drawn up on the side nearest the cathedral, facing the river, and they completed a hollow square.

As O'Reilly came ashore every vessel fired a salute, and so did the Spanish artillery and infantry in the square. Then amid the roll of drums and blare of trumpets he entered the square attended by men in brilliant uniforms bearing silver maces, as emblems of power. All this was carefully planned so as to impress the French people with the uselessness of any opposition to Spanish rule.

Spain in Possession.—Aubry and O'Reilly met at the center of the square near a flagpole, from which the French colors were flying. The Spanish general showed the French officer his commission and asked Aubry to read and translate it to the people. This was done, and Aubry then announced that they were freed from their allegiance to the king of France and thenceforth subjects of the king of Spain. He then handed O'Reilly the keys of the town gates, and the flag of France was lowered to be replaced by that of Spain.

And so, just seventy years after Iberville and Bienville had planted their first settlement in the lower Mississippi Valley, the rule of France over this region came to an end. All the money, labor and human lives that had been poured out by the mother country in an effort to build a powerful

colonial empire had been spent only to pave the way for the entrance of England and Spain. It was through no fault of his subjects in America that Louis XV lost Louisiana. The fault lay rather with that wicked king and his favorites, who had brought all France to the verge of ruin. Bienville, who had lived to see France promise the fruit of his labors to Spain, was spared the pain of seeing this promise finally carried out. At the time of the events just narrated he had lain over a year in his grave.

QUESTIONS

1. What did the Spanish government do on hearing of the revolution in Louisiana?
2. Who was General O'Reilly, and what was he ordered to do?
3. What was the effect on the revolutionary leaders when they heard of his coming?
4. Describe the mission of Lafrénière, Marquis and Milhet to O'Reilly.
5. Tell about the landing of the governor and his troops in New Orleans.
6. Give the details of the formal transfer of Louisiana to Spain.

XX

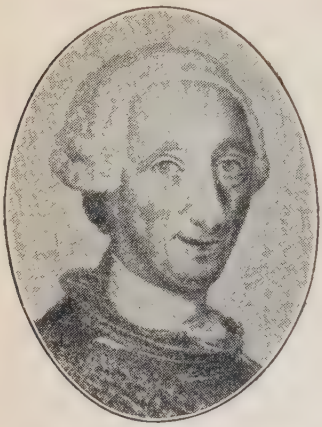
MARTYRS FOR LIBERTY

On the day after O'Reilly took possession of Louisiana he sent a note to Aubry asking him to report what he knew about the revolution. In reply Aubry wrote a long letter in which he set forth in great detail the part which each of the leaders of the revolt had played and all that he had done to hold them in check. He left nothing undone to fix their guilt and to win for himself the favor of the new rulers. He ended his letter by saying that O'Reilly's approval of his conduct during the crisis would be the handsomest reward which he could ever receive.

Aubry Turns Informer.—Thus Aubry stands accused of having betrayed his countrymen into the hands of the Spaniard. Their only offense had been an effort to remain under the same flag that Aubry served. They claimed that they were still subjects of the French king, and that they were under the flag of France when they acted against Ulloa. At any rate, Aubry was still a French officer and under no obligation to comply with such a request as O'Reilly had made. His master was the king of France, and if he felt in duty bound to report the activities of his people it would have been more becoming in him to have done so to that ruler and not to a Spanish officer.

After receiving Aubry's report, O'Reilly determined to bring the leaders of the revolution to punishment. His orders had been only to send the chief leaders out of the colony, but Aubry had drawn such an ugly picture of their conduct that he decided upon a more severe penalty. He therefore invited ten of the leaders to his house on various pretexts. When they arrived he drew them one by one into a private room, and there in the presence of Aubry and a

number of Spanish soldiers he said: "Gentlemen, I regret to say that you are accused of being the authors of the late insurrection. I therefore arrest you in the king's name. My earnest wish is that you may prove your innocence, and that I may set you free again." The Frenchmen were then escorted by the soldiers to different places of confinement, and were not allowed to have any communication with one another.



Charles III, King of Spain
1716-1788

Villeré, one of the leaders of the revolt, was at his plantation on the German Coast when these events took place. On hearing of the arrest of his companions he planned to go to Manchac, where he would be in British territory and beyond the Spaniard's reach, but a letter from Aubry, who, some reports state, assured him of safety, or his belief that O'Reilly would deal gently with him, caused him to decide to go to New Orleans and discuss matters with the captain-general. On reaching the city, however, he was immediately arrested, and according to one report, taken aboard a ship in the river, where he was later killed by one of his guards. The Spaniards later reported, however, that he fell into a violent temper after being made prisoner and died raving mad. At any rate, he died a martyr for the liberty of Louisiana.

Days of Terror.—The sudden arrest of so many of the leading men of New Orleans and the death of Villeré threw the whole city into a state of terror. Many families prepared to flee to West Florida, where they would be safe under the British flag. Most of the people shut themselves up in their homes, and the strects were almost deserted.

No one knew but that it might be his turn to be arrested next. When O'Reilly saw the effect of his action he sought to calm the fears of the people by issuing a proclamation conferring a full pardon upon any and all who had taken part in the revolution except those who were then in confinement. Four days later O'Reilly held a great assembly at which the inhabitants of New Orleans took the oath of allegiance to the Spanish government. No one was compelled to take the oath, but O'Reilly explained that if any refused he would give them time to arrange their affairs and leave the country. By this time there was no further idea of resistance to Spanish rule, and the citizens took the oath willingly. Officers were next sent out into the province to administer the oath in the different settlements.

Revolutionists on Trial.—Meanwhile the trial of the men under arrest proceeded according to the Spanish methods of that time. The accused were not brought into open court, to be examined publicly and confronted by their accusers, as persons charged with serious offenses are to-day. On the contrary, the judges visited the prisoners where they were confined, questioned them closely, and compelled them to answer. The witnesses were also examined in secret, and the prisoners never knew who gave the evidence against them or what was told the judges. There was no jury to pass upon the guilt of the prisoners. The judges decided this for themselves, and if the decision were against the prisoner they then fixed the penalty.

It must be remembered that this was all strictly in accordance with the law of that day. Moreover, the Spanish officers were careful to avoid anything which might make it appear that they had not dealt lawfully with their prisoners at every step of the proceedings.

The prisoners freely admitted having done the things with which they were charged, but they denied that they had violated any law of Spain, since Spain was not at the time in control of the country, and they had never taken

the oath of allegiance to the Spanish king. The judges, however, ruled that even if the accused were still Frenchmen at the time of the revolt they were living in territory which had become Spanish property and were therefore under obligations to treat its ruler with due respect, just as persons living in any country other than their own are required to do at the present day.

Verdict of Guilty.—The prisoners were found guilty, and O'Reilly, acting as the presiding judge, condemned Lafrénière, Noyan, Caresse, Marquis and Joseph Milhet to be hanged. They were to be led to the gallows with ropes around their necks, and mounted on donkeys. Villeré had already suffered death, but his memory was condemned as infamous. Of the other prisoners, Joseph Petit, a merchant, received a life sentence; Balthasar Masan, a wealthy planter, and Julien Doucet, a lawyer, were sentenced to prison for ten years; and Jean Milhet and Pierre Poupet, merchants, were sentenced for six years. All the property of the condemned men was seized for the government, and it was ordered that all the circulars and documents which had been published by the revolutionists should be collected and destroyed by the public hangman.

O'Reilly ordered the execution to take place the very day after the sentence was pronounced, and refused to yield to any of the entreaties of friends of the condemned men. Many colonists who from the first had been noted for their loyalty to the Spanish authorities begged him to postpone the carrying out of the death penalty until his judgment could be referred to Spain for approval, but he turned a deaf ear to every plea for delay or mercy. Only one change was made in the plans. It was impossible to find a white man who was willing to act as hangman, although a large reward was offered to any who would perform this disagreeable task, and consequently the sentence was changed from hanging to shooting.

Death of the Leaders.—At three o'clock on the afternoon

of October twenty-fifth the prisoners, with their arms bound, were marched between an escort of Spanish soldiers to the place of execution. They faced the firing-squad bravely, and Lafrénière himself is said to have given the command to fire. The remaining leaders who were sentenced to prison were at once put on board ship and taken to Havana, where they were confined in Moro Castle. Some time thereafter they were pardoned by Charles III at the request of the French ambassador.

As for Aubry, he was offered a place of high rank in the Spanish army as a reward for the faithful assistance he had given to O'Reilly in punishing the revolutionists. He declined this honor, however, and soon after the execution of his countrymen he put his baggage on a ship preparing to sail for France. For some reason he did not go aboard himself, but slipped away from the city and rowed out to the vessel when it reached his place of concealment some miles down the river. He carried with him a heavy purse of gold coin and had also placed a heavy bag of silver on board the ship before it sailed from New Orleans.

Whether this wealth was properly obtained or not, Aubry did not live to enjoy it. When he was in sight of his native shores a storm came up and wrecked his vessel. It carried down all but five of its passengers and crew, and among those who perished was Aubry. He had left Louisiana a greatly hated man, and when news of his death reached the colony many saw in this the evidence of a just retribution for his activities in bringing about the execution of his patriotic countrymen.

QUESTIONS

1. How did Aubry help O'Reilly deal with the revolutionists?
2. What effect did his accusations have on O'Reilly's plans?
3. Describe the arrest of the leaders.
4. What became of Villeré?
5. What did O'Reilly do to calm the fears of the population?

6. Give the chief details of the trial of the revolutionists.
7. What defense was made by the accused leaders, and why was this rejected by the Spanish authorities?
8. What penalties were imposed on the leaders?
9. What became of Aubry?

XXI

UNDER SPANISH RULE

After punishing so severely those who had led in the revolt against the Spanish king, General O'Reilly next turned his attention to the government of the colony. The Superior Council had taken such an active part in the resistance to Spain that he decided to do away with that body and to set up a new government in Louisiana along the lines followed in other Spanish colonies. In place of the Superior Council, therefore, he established the Cabildo. This consisted of ten members, with the governor presiding in person at its meetings. Six of the members were called regidors. These held office for life and obtained their positions by purchase. The office of clerk was filled in the same manner. The three other members were chosen at the beginning of each year by the regidors. Two of these were called ordinary alcaldes, and the other was designated as the attorney-general syndic.

Members of the Cabildo.—The ordinary alcaldes served as judges in the city of New Orleans. They tried cases and gave their verdicts without juries, and an appeal could be made from their decisions to the Cabildo only in important cases. The other officer chosen each year by the regidors was the attorney-general syndic. He was supposed to speak on behalf of the people and to look after their interests. The people themselves, you will note, had no direct voice in the government. In addition to attending the weekly meetings of the Cabildo each of the regidors had certain definite duties to perform. One regidor, for instance, was known as the royal standard bearer. On all occasions of state and pomp it was his duty to carry the royal standard of Spain. As the Spaniards attached great importance to

public processions and other similar ceremonies, this position was regarded as one of high honor. Another regidor served as treasurer, another as high sheriff, another as receiver of fines, and another as principal alcalde, or judge, of the colony outside the city.

While the people had little to say about the laws they were to live under or the taxes they would have to pay, the government of Louisiana under the Cabildo was mild and humane for that period of our history, and we must not judge it according to our own ideas of good government to-day. At this time it was the custom in all the countries of Europe and also in the American colonies to throw persons into prison for debt. Under the Spanish rule in Louisiana three members of the Cabildo were required to visit the prison in New Orleans every Friday and look into the condition of the prisoners. At Christmas and Easter the governor went with them. If they found any confined for debts that were not due to dishonesty and believed that they were wholly unable to pay they would order their release. It was also their duty to release any who they found had been confined too long a time for a slight offense.

Mild Spanish Rule.—General O'Reilly sought in many ways to heal the wounds and calm the fears caused by his execution of the revolutionists. He found the people so ready to accept the new order of things that he had little need for all the troops that he had brought with him and soon sent half of them back to Cuba. He made a journey up the Mississippi as far as Pointe Coupée, and wherever he stopped he called the inhabitants before him and asked whether they had any complaints. In case they had he did not try to force his will upon them, but referred the matter in dispute to a group of their own people. He found that there were many disputes among the planters about the boundaries of their lands, because the lands had never been properly surveyed. He therefore appointed a surveyor for each district and had the limits to each colonist's land fixed.

For every district he also appointed a commander of militia, taking care in each case to select an officer of French descent. The cost of governing the colony he found to be much greater than it ought to be, and he made many reforms that cut the expenses in half.

In one respect O'Reilly showed harshness. That was in breaking up the trade between the people of Louisiana and the English. We have already seen how British ships began to pass by New Orleans in considerable number after Great Britain got possession of the east bank of the Mississippi above Bayou Manchac in 1763, and for many years a large but unlawful trade had been carried on by the people of New Orleans with these vessels. When O'Reilly arrived in Louisiana there were a number of British merchants in the city engaged in this sort of trade. He drove them out and broke up the custom of British vessels stopping just above New Orleans and selling goods to the inhabitants. This was something of a hardship, as the ships had been supplying the city and the planters up the river with most of the goods which they needed and taking whatever the colonists had to sell in exchange. On the other hand, O'Reilly urged his government to permit free trade between Louisiana and Cuba, so that the people could find a market for their lumber. There was no market for it in Spain, the only place to which they were allowed to send it, and it was needed in Cuba for boxes and barrels for sugar and tobacco.

Unzaga Becomes Governor.—When O'Reilly came to Louisiana he was officially designated as captain-general and governor, but at the first meeting of the Cabildo, on December 1, 1769, he transferred the office of governor to Colonel Don Luis de Unzaga, who thereafter presided at the meetings of the Cabildo, while O'Reilly retained his title of captain-general. The king of Spain had not intended that such a valuable officer as O'Reilly should remain in a distant, thinly settled colony any longer than was necessary for him to complete his special task of securing the

people's acceptance of Spanish rule, and so on October 29, 1770, O'Reilly took his departure, leaving Unzaga in full control of the colony.

Unzaga was an elderly man of gentle manners who soon won the good will of all the colonists. He paid little attention to the regulations which forbade trade between Louisiana and any country but Spain, and the British ships en route to Manchac and Baton Rouge were soon again selling their goods to the people in the city and to the planters west of the river. A large amount of silver coin was sent into Louisiana from Mexico and the West Indies to pay the expenses of the government. This went into circulation and made it easier to carry on trade than had been possible with the constantly changing paper money under French rule. Spanish silver also came to be the chief kind of coin found in the English colonies, and it later served as the basis for the silver currency of the United States. The American silver dollar was copied after the Spanish "piece of eight."

Oliver Pollock.—Under this freedom of trade the colony prospered, and merchants came to New Orleans from Boston, New York and Philadelphia and set up successful business houses. Among the most noted of these was Oliver Pollock. While General O'Reilly was in New Orleans provisions at one time ran short because the ships bringing supplies failed to arrive as soon as they were expected. Flour became so scarce that it sold for twenty dollars a barrel. Just at this time a ship belonging to Pollock and loaded with flour came up the river, and he offered the entire cargo to O'Reilly at the general's own price. O'Reilly gladly accepted the flour, but refused to take advantage of Pollock and paid him fifteen dollars a barrel. To show his gratitude for Pollock's generous offer he gave him the privilege of trading in Louisiana with all the goods that his ship could carry and without paying any duty.

After the establishment of the Cabildo all laws, orders

and decrees were published in Spanish, which became the official language. Practically all the people, however, continued to use French as their common tongue. Unzaga and several Spanish governors who came after him married into French Creole families, and Louisiana, though under Spanish rule, remained French in population, language and culture. Spain was fortunate in choosing governors for her new possession. They were all men of ability, rank and education. In 1776 Unzaga was promoted to be captain-general of another province, and the people were filled with regret at his leaving. By his mild and prudent course he had gone far in removing all that was left of the bad feelings aroused in the days of the revolution.

QUESTIONS

1. Why was the Superior Council abolished? What took its place?
2. Who were the regidors? How did they get their offices?
3. What officer was chosen to look after the rights of the people?
4. What name did the Spanish give to the new judges?
5. State some fact showing that the new government was mild and humane for its time.
6. Name two changes for the better that were made in the colony by O'Reilly.
7. Why was trade with British ships so important?
8. Who was Oliver Pollock?
9. Were the new governors able to make a really Spanish province out of Louisiana? Why?

XXII

GALVEZ AND THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

The aged Unzaga was succeeded as governor of Louisiana by Don Bernardo de Galvez, a brilliant young officer barely twenty-one years of age. He came of a famous family, his father being viceroy of Mexico and his uncle being president of the Council of the Indies, which had great power in Spain. Shortly before Galvez became governor war had broken out between Great Britain and her colonies in North America, and the colonies on July 4, 1776, had declared their independence of the mother country.

Friendly to Americans.—In this struggle the Spanish officials favored the Americans, not because they desired to see them become free and independent, but because they regarded Great Britain as a powerful rival of their own country and they were glad to see a new chance of humbling Britain's pride. Galvez and the other Spanish officials in Louisiana secretly aided the American revolutionists by allowing their agents to make New Orleans their headquarters and by helping them to obtain guns and ammunition for use against the British troops. One of the most active of these American agents was the merchant and shipowner, Oliver Pollock, who enjoyed the favor and friendship of Galvez, just as he had that of O'Reilly and Unzaga.

France also sympathized with the American revolution, partly because of her rivalry with England, and partly also because there were many enlightened Frenchmen like the young Marquis de Lafayette, who heartily approved of the principles for which the thirteen colonies were fighting. This feeling in favor of the colonies was shared by the people of Louisiana.

Spain Enters the Conflict.—Two years after the Declara-

tion of Independence France declared war on Great Britain and took up the sword in defense of American liberty. Spain held off till the following year, and then she too joined in the war against England. This gave Galvez his opportunity. He had already laid his plans, in case Spain entered the war, to capture Mobile and Pensacola, and thus restore Florida as a Spanish province. It was necessary for him at first, however, to give his attention to a threatening situation on the Mississippi River. Letters sent by English officers from the post at Natchez fell into his hands, and these showed that the British were planning a surprise attack on New Orleans.

Don Bernardo de Galvez

Galvez on the Mississippi.—But Galvez was not the kind of governor to be caught napping. He decided to attack first. By the end of August, 1779, he had raised a force of about 650 men in New Orleans and with these he set out up the east bank of the river with the object of capturing the British posts in West Florida. On the way he was joined by 600 colonists and 160 Indians, so that his total forces exceeded 1400. Fort Bute, at the junction of the river with Bayou Manchac, was defended by only twenty soldiers, and it was easily captured. Galvez next allowed his men a week in which to rest from their march of over a hundred miles in midsummer and then moved against the fort at Baton Rouge, fifteen miles up-stream. The fort at this point was quite strong, being fitted out with thirteen pieces of heavy artillery and manned by a garrison of 400 regular troops and 100 militiamen. It was also surrounded by a ditch eighteen feet wide and nine feet deep.

Capture of Baton Rouge.—Galvez saw that this fort was too strong to be taken by storm, and he sought therefore to capture it by stratagem. He placed some of his militia and friendly Indians in a clump of woods near the fort and when night came these fired their guns and acted as if they were going to attack. This made the British keep up a steady fire on the woods and waste their ammunition. While they were thus engaged the rest of Galvez's forces stole up through the darkness close to the other side of the fort and dug trenches and set up their heavy guns before the British discovered the trick. At daybreak on September 21, 1779, Galvez turned his guns on the fort and kept up a hot fire till the middle of the afternoon. By this time the fort was so badly damaged that the commander, Colonel Dickson, sent out two officers under a flag of truce and offered to surrender. Galvez insisted that the British agree to give up the fort at Natchez at the same time that they gave up the one at Baton Rouge. They consented, and he sent a body of troops to Natchez to take possession. In this way Galvez got possession of all the British posts on the lower river with very little loss among his own troops.

There was also some fighting on the river and Lake Pontchartrain between Spanish gunboats and British vessels. At the junction of the Mississippi and Bayou Manchac an English cutter with a crew of seventy was working its way upstream when it was fired upon by fourteen French Creoles concealed on the river bank. The crew rushed below decks for safety, whereupon the small attacking party boarded the ship, fastened down the hatches and captured it and its crew of five times their own number.

Mobile Taken.—New Orleans was now safe from any attack by British forces from up the river, and Galvez next planned an expedition against Mobile. He got more troops from Havana, and early in 1780 sailed with 2,000 men. A tropical storm overtook the expedition in the gulf and caused some trouble and delay, but the forces finally suc-

ceeded in surrounding Fort Charlotte, which defended Mobile, and in March it surrendered.

Galvez now turned his attention to Pensacola, the strongest British possession in this region. More troops had been promised him from Havana, and when they failed to arrive he went to Cuba and got them. On his way to Pensacola another storm scattered his ships and wrecked some of them. He brought together the surviving vessels and sailed back to Havana to prepare for a second effort. Finally, just a year after his attack on Mobile he sailed into Pensacola Bay with a stronger force than ever, and laid siege to Fort George, which defended the town.

Fall of Pensacola.—The English here offered strong resistance, and after a month's fighting the attack seemed about to fail. An accident then gave the Spanish the victory. The powder magazine in Fort George blew up and destroyed part of the defenses. Just as the Spanish forces were about to charge through the breach in the walls the English raised the white flag, and British rule in West Florida was at an end.

A few months after this American and French forces operating together compelled Lord Cornwallis to surrender at Yorktown, and the fighting in America was at an end. In the treaty of peace that followed Great Britain acknowledged the independence of the former thirteen colonies, then become the United States, and also gave both East and West Florida back to Spain. The Spanish flag remained flying over Baton Rouge and Natchez. The northern boundary of West Florida, which was later to become a matter of bitter dispute between Spain and the United States, was fixed at a line running along the thirty-first parallel from the Mississippi River eastward to the Chattahoochee.

The Spanish king liberally rewarded Galvez for his brilliant achievements. After the capture of Mobile he was made a brigadier-general, though only about twenty-five years of age. After his success at Pensacola he was raised to the

rank of lieutenant-general, made a count, and appointed captain-general of Louisiana and the Floridas. After his capture of Pensacola he went to Santo Domingo to take part in an expedition against Jamaica, and left Colonel Estevan Miro as acting governor of Louisiana. Two years after peace was made Galvez succeeded his father as viceroy of Mexico, but was allowed to retain the title of captain-general of Louisiana and the Floridas.

When Spain went to war with England this put a stop to the trade of English vessels in Louisiana. Galvez seized eleven English vessels bringing goods to the colony. He gave the colonists the right to trade with France and with the revolted English colonies, as these were allies of Spain during the war. French and American ships thus took the place of the British on the Mississippi, and the change brought a large number of Anglo-American merchants into New Orleans.

The Islanders.—While Galvez was governor a large number of Spanish settlers from the Canary Islands arrived in Louisiana. They were sent at the expense of the Spanish government. Some settled in St. Bernard Parish, others on Bayou La Fourche, and one group formed a town on the Amite River, which was called Galveztown in honor of the governor. Somewhat later another group arrived and founded New Iberia on the Bayou Têche. The government provided each head of a family with a house, cattle, poultry, farm implements, and food for four years. To the other colonists they and their descendants came to be known as Islanders, or Isleños.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did the Spanish officials in Louisiana favor the American revolutionists?
2. In what ways did they give secret aid to the Americans?
3. What plans had Galvez made in case Spain declared war against England?

4. What caused him to change his plans?
5. Describe his expedition up the river.
6. Give the details of the capture of Baton Rouge.
7. What other fighting occurred on the river and on Lake Pontchartrain?
8. Sketch briefly the operations of Galvez against Mobile and Pensacola.
9. How did the treaty of peace affect Spain's possessions in North America? Did any part of the present state of Louisiana change hands?
10. How was Galvez rewarded for his victories?
11. What was the effect of the war on trade on the Mississippi?
12. Who were the "Islanders"?

Naval Battle during the Revolution

XXIII

ESTEVAN MIRO

Colonel Estevan Miro, who succeeded Galvez, was governor of Louisiana from 1784 to 1791. He was not such an able and successful governor as Galvez had been, but he possessed honesty, common sense and good judgment, and won the good will of all classes of the people. He was well educated and spoke both French and English fluently. Like the two governors who preceded him, he married a Creole lady of New Orleans. During his administration he succeeded in completely reconciling the people of Louisiana to Spanish rule.

Indian Treaties.—Miro had many difficult problems to solve, and he led a busy life. He had the same troubles that the French governors met with in keeping on friendly terms with the Indians. The red men wanted presents, and they also wanted goods like those which the traders in Georgia and the Carolinas were getting from England and selling to their Indian customers. To keep the savages in good humor Miro allowed two agents at Mobile and Pensacola to bring in some English goods, although this was against the Spanish laws of trade. He also held a great council, or powwow, of the Choctaws, Chickasaws and Alabamas at Mobile, gave the chiefs presents, and made new treaties with them in which he promised to prevent the white settlers crowding in on their lands.

The strict trade regulations of the Spanish government had been applied to Louisiana, and these did not allow foreign vessels to trade with the colony, or the planters to trade with the American settlers up the river. As the British were no longer at Manchac or Baton Rouge, English vessels had ceased to pass New Orleans on their way to

these posts, and so the custom of "going to little Manchac" in order to get goods that were needed could no longer be followed. The planters up the river also sorely missed the English vessels that used to stop in front of their houses and exchange manufactured articles for the products of the farms. This interference with trade caused the colonists great inconvenience and to some extent checked their prosperity. Miro, however, did all that he could to soften the harsh measures forbidding trade with other countries, and went as far as he dared in allowing the merchants to ignore the restrictions.

Don Estevan Miro

Coming of the Americans.—Another thing that gave Miro trouble was the great rush of Americans from the Eastern States to the Mississippi Valley. English-speaking settlers were flocking in great numbers into the country around Natchez and Baton Rouge, and the home government ordered him not to allow them to gain too strong a hold in this region because it rightly believed that these people would never accept the kind of government that Spain would maintain over them. The state of Georgia also claimed part of the territory which the Spanish authorities were then holding as West Florida. The western boundary of Georgia at the close of the Revolutionary War was the Mississippi River, and that state laid claim to the

district around Natchez and sent three commissioners to demand its surrender. Miro refused to admit the Georgia claim, and the dispute over this territory was to become keen under his successor, as we shall see hereafter.

Miro was not able to check the movement of Americans into Louisiana, and he had reason to fear that some day they might join hands with others who were swarming in great numbers into Kentucky and Tennessee. To avoid this danger he sought to win the Kentuckians away from the American Union and make them allies of Spain. The people of Kentucky had separated from Virginia and those of Tennessee from North Carolina, but the Federal government at this time was not strong enough to guard the welfare of these settlements across the mountains and left the people largely to shift for themselves.

Congress at this time was weak and timid and seemed unwilling even to consider admitting new Western States into the Union. Many Americans in the West, therefore, were in favor of uniting with Louisiana, which seemed closely tied to them by the great river highway, while they were separated from the Eastern States by a chain of high mountains. It was this sort of feeling that Miro hoped to see spread through the West, and he and his agents labored hard with this end in view. Governor Miro thus had a hard task before him in trying to carry out the orders of his home government concerning trade and the western settlements and at the same time seeking to keep the people of Louisiana prosperous and contented.

The New Orleans Fire.—In 1788 New Orleans was visited by a disastrous fire that destroyed over a hundred buildings in a few hours. The finest residences, the cathedral, and all the stores and public buildings were destroyed. The houses that were left standing were overcrowded with the victims of the disaster, and there were nearly a thousand persons who had to be cared for by the government. Miro provided tents for those who could not find shelter in

Old French Quarter, New Orleans

the houses and hurried ships to the United States with a big sum of money to buy food. All restrictions on trade with the Americans up the river were also removed, so that the colony might be saved from the threatened famine.

Don Andreas Almonaster.—The governor won the hearts of the people by his efforts to relieve their distress, and as soon as the sufferings were partly relieved he gave his encouragement to the rebuilding of the city. The man who did most in this work of building anew was Don Andreas Almonaster. At his own expense he replaced the public buildings that had been destroyed with larger and more handsome structures that at once caused New Orleans to be regarded as one of the most beautiful cities of North America. Some of these buildings—the Cabildo, the St. Louis Cathedral, and the Presbytery—are still among the most imposing structures in New Orleans to-day, notwithstanding the great growth and the many improvements that have come in recent times, and they are imposing monuments to the generosity and the good taste of the city's benefactor. Don Andreas Almonaster also rebuilt the charity hospital, the public school, and the church of the Ursuline convent.

As a result of the fire much of New Orleans was rebuilt in the picturesque style of architecture that is still seen to-day throughout the French quarter of the city. Brick and frame dwellings were replaced by houses of stone and stucco built around a small yard or court and shaded by balconies with wrought-iron supports.

Miro grew weary of the many vexing problems that faced him on all sides. Before he came to Louisiana he had been in the service of the Spanish government for many years, and he now begged to be relieved and to be allowed to return to his native country. After he had repeated his request many times his government finally gave its consent, and the people showed deep and genuine regret at his departure.

QUESTIONS

1. What sort of governor did Colonel Miro make?
2. Describe his dealings with the Indians.
3. How was Spain's control over trade injuring the colony?

4. Did Miro enforce the rules about trade strictly?
5. Why did Spain wish to keep Americans out of Louisiana?
6. What was Miro's attitude toward the settlers in Kentucky and Tennessee?
7. Describe the fire of 1788.
8. Who was Don Andreas Almonaster?

Old Residence in French Quarter, New Orleans

XXIV

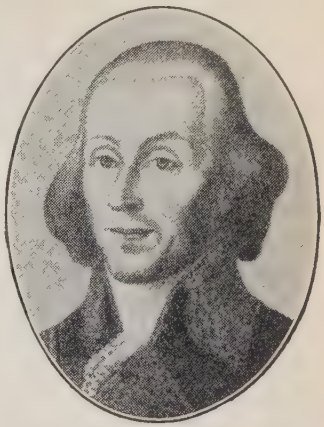
BARON DE CARONDELET

François Louis Hector, Baron de Carondelet, succeeded Miro as governor on the last day of 1791. He is described as a short, stout gentleman, with a rather sharp temper, but not lacking in good nature. He possessed ability and energy, like the two governors who came immediately before him, and he readily won the friendship and respect of the Creoles. Carondelet was of Flemish ancestry, but had served as a colonel in the Spanish army, and before coming to Louisiana he had been governor of the Spanish province of Guatemala, in Central America.

The new governor gave special attention to improving conditions in New Orleans. For the first time the streets of the city were lighted at night. Oil lamps were hung by chains at the corners. Watchmen were also employed to patrol the streets at night and call out the hour and the state of the weather, as was then the custom in the cities of Europe. To meet the cost of these improvements, he laid a tax on every chimney in the city, a means of raising revenue that he also borrowed from Europe.

The French Revolution.—There was a special reason why Carondelet undertook to make the city safer at night. Two years before he became governor the people of France had risen against their tyrannical government and overthrown it. They had been influenced to do this to some extent by the success of the American Revolution, in which France had played an important part. The French people of Louisiana, as we have seen before, were in sympathy with the revolution in America, and they were now likewise in sympathy with the efforts of their kindred across the seas to set up a republic in France.

On the other hand, the king of Spain was very hostile to the revolution in France, which had driven his kinsman Louis XVI from the throne, and he was especially desirous that the ideas about liberty then prevailing in France should not extend to his colonies. He was particularly anxious about Louisiana, where French influence was already so strong. For this reason he went so far as to forbid his subjects from having in their possession any coin, clock, or other article that showed the figure of Liberty.



François Louis Hector
Baron de Carondelet

Governor Miro had noted the influence of the French doctrine of liberty and equality on the people during his last year in the colony, and Carondelet learned soon after he arrived that there were many friends of the revolution in Louisiana. It was because he feared that they might make trouble that he put lights and watchmen on the streets of New Orleans at night. He also thought it wise to repair the fortifications around the city and to erect a number of new ones. The forts were intended not only to protect against an enemy, but also to hold in check any inhabitants whose sympathies with France might be too strong. Carondelet always believed that his new forts prevented an outbreak against Spanish rule. There were not only friends of the revolution in Louisiana, but there were many also in the United States, and some of these were seeking to stir up trouble between the Louisiana Creoles and the Spanish officials.

Singing the "Marseillaise."—Meanwhile over in Europe the breach between France and Spain grew wider as the

revolution proceeded, and when the revolutionary leaders in 1793 beheaded the French King Louis XVI Spain declared war on France. This added greatly to the troubles of Carondelet. The Creoles made no secret of their friendship for France, even though the government under which they lived was making war on that country. The various revolutionary songs, including the *Marseillaise*, were sung and applauded at the theater and other public places. The expressions of sympathy with France finally reached the point where the governor was compelled to interfere, and he therefore arrested six of the leaders among the French sympathizers and sent them to Havana, where they served a year in prison.

While Carondelet was compelled to suppress these activities because they meant hostility to his government, he won the good will of the people in other ways by his careful consideration of their well-being. One of his most important undertakings was a canal leading into New Orleans from Bayou St. John. When this was finished small vessels could reach the heart of the city from the Gulf of Mexico by sailing through Lake Pontchartrain to the mouth of the bayou, and the canal to this day bears the name of the governor who built it.

In order to keep the colonists from growing still more discontented, Carondelet neglected to enforce the laws forbidding trade with foreign ships, and this tended to increase the welfare of the colony. To prevent trouble with the home government in this matter the customs officials in New Orleans reported all foreign ships entering the port as Spanish.

The First Newspaper.—It was while Carondelet was governor that Louisiana's first newspaper made its appearance. This was called *Le Moniteur de la Louisiane*, or *Louisiana Monitor*, and was first published in 1794. In this same year New Orleans had a second great fire, which destroyed over two hundred buildings. A smaller portion of

the city was burned than six years before, but the value of the property destroyed was much greater. Only two stores escaped destruction, and the loss of foodstuffs was so great that there was again danger of famine. Carondelet, like Miro at the time of the other fire, won the praises of the inhabitants by his efforts to relieve the distress.

The French Revolution caused large numbers of the nobility and other sympathizers with the royal family to flee for refuge to other countries. Carondelet encouraged the royalists to come to Louisiana, where they would be under the flag of a power friendly to their late king. He thought, too, that these newcomers, with their stories of the Reign of Terror that had come in France with the revolution, would turn the people against the French Republic and offset the activities of its friends in Louisiana. To the Baron de Bastrop he granted twelve square leagues of land on the Ouachita River, and to the Marquis de Maison Rouge thirty thousand acres in the same section. Nothing came of these grants, as these fine noblemen found themselves unfitted for pioneer life in the wilderness. We shall hear of the Bastrop grant again in connection with the schemes of Aaron Burr.

Uprising of Slaves.—On the island of Santo Domingo the spread of the revolutionary ideas from France resulted in a rebellion of slaves and in a series of terrible massacres of the white inhabitants. Many of the slave owners who escaped the horrors of the uprising came to Louisiana as refugees and settled in various parts of the province. The stories which they told of their terrible experiences were repeated in nearly every household, often in the presence of the negro servants. In this way the news was spread among the slave cabins of the plantations. In Pointe Coupée Parish some slaves on the plantation of Julien Poydras, one of the most enlightened and humane planters in the colony, decided that they might repeat in Louisiana what had been done in Santo Domingo, and it seems that they were aided

in their murderous designs by three disreputable white men.

The plot spread throughout the parish, and April 15, 1795, was fixed as the day on which the blacks were to rise and slay their masters. A quarrel broke out among the leaders, however, and one of them turned against his fellows and sent his wife to the commandant of the parish with the story of the plot. The ringleaders, including the three white criminals, were seized and thrown into prison. Some slaves then arose and tried to rescue the prisoners, and in the fight that followed twenty-five of them were killed. About sixty others were captured, and twenty-three blacks were tried and condemned to die. They were hanged at various points along the river as a warning to others, but for some strange reason the white leaders, who appear to have deserved the most severe punishment, were only banished from the colony.

The Pointe Coupée insurrection created so much uneasiness that the Cabildo sent a petition to the king begging that no more negroes should be brought to Louisiana, and Carondelet forbade the admission of any more slaves until he could learn the king's decision in the matter.

QUESTIONS

1. What sort of man was Baron de Carondelet?
2. What improvements did he make in New Orleans?
3. How did he meet the expense for the improvements?
4. For what special reason did he light and guard the streets at night?
5. How did the Creoles feel toward the French Revolution?
6. What was the feeling of the Spanish officials on this subject?
7. What did Carondelet do to check the friends of the Revolution in Louisiana?
8. In what ways did Carondelet gain the people's good will?
9. What was the *Louisiana Monitor?*
10. What effects did the French Revolution have on Louisiana?
11. Describe the slave rebellion in Pointe Coupée Parish.

XXV

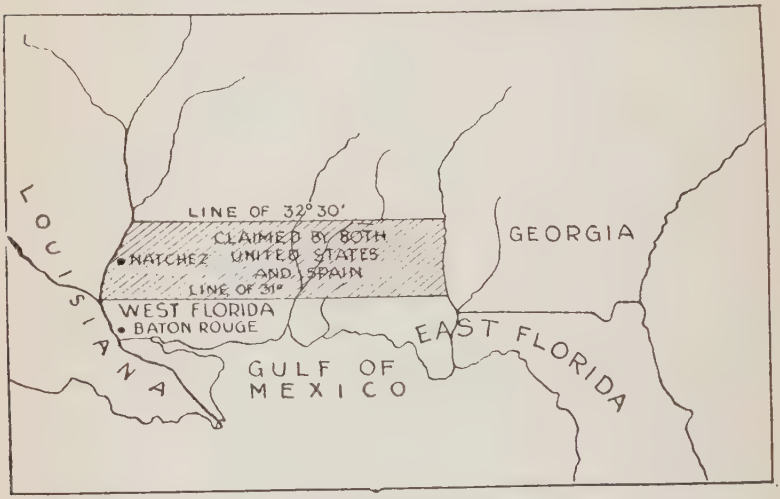
THE FIGHT FOR A FREE RIVER

In the treaties which brought the Revolutionary War to a close England gave East and West Florida back to Spain and ceded to the United States all the other lands she had once held south of Canada and east of the Mississippi River. The entire western and southern boundaries of the United States thus touched upon Spanish possessions.

The Spanish government was not so friendly now to the cause of American independence as its officers and subjects in Louisiana had been during the war. Spain naturally feared that the action of the American colonies in gaining their freedom would prove to be an example that her own colonies would seek to follow, and we now know that her fears in this respect were well founded. The Spanish government had joined in this war in order to regain territory that it had lost to England in other wars, and it hoped to accomplish this and see the war brought to an end with the thirteen colonies still in England's control. While Spain was successful in recovering the Floridas, she was not pleased to have the new republic as a neighbor for her colonial possessions.

The Westward Movement.—Even while the Revolutionary War was going on, pioneers from Virginia, Pennsylvania, and the Carolinas had begun to cross the mountains in large numbers and settle in what are now the states of Tennessee and Kentucky. By the time the war ended there were about as many people in that section as there were in Louisiana. With the coming of peace the settlers poured into this region in greater numbers than ever, and by 1790 they numbered at least one hundred thousand. Nearly all of them were farmers, and the only way they could sell their

produce profitably was to send it to the cities on the Atlantic coast or to Europe. It was too expensive for them to haul their bulky produce to the seaboard over the mountains, and they could reach the markets only by sending their goods down the Mississippi River on flatboats to New Orleans, where their produce would be placed aboard sea-going vessels. It was very important to these people, then, that the



Territory in Dispute between Spain and United States, 1783-1795

Mississippi should be open at all times to navigation by the Americans in the West.

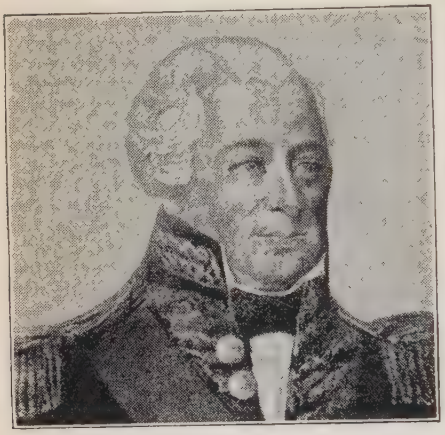
The treaty between Great Britain and the United States gave each country the right to free navigation of the river from its source to its mouth, but Spain was not a party to this agreement, and she held all the western bank of the river and both banks south of the thirty-first parallel. Spain next advanced the claim that West Florida extended as far north as 32° 30′, and when the United States objected she threatened to close the lower Mississippi to American

trade unless our government should admit the Spanish claims.

Western Alarms.—Such a threat to the well-being of the people west of the mountains threw them into great excitement. They appealed to Congress for help, and when that body moved very slowly they felt that their government was not protecting their interests as it should. Spain still held Natchez, although it was north of the thirty-first parallel, and had erected a custom-house there. Trade between Kentucky and Louisiana was prohibited by the Spanish government soon after Miro became governor, but he allowed a certain amount of it to be carried on. From time to time, however, the officials would seize a boat load of goods, and this kept the western people in a state of discontent. The risk of having goods seized caused the trade between New Orleans and the West, as Kentucky and Tennessee were then called, to fall off sharply. The western people had grown accustomed in their remote settlements to do very much as they pleased, and it angered them greatly to have their business placed at the mercy of a foreign king in a distant country.

The American government at this time was very different from what it is to-day. The Revolutionary War had left it with an empty treasury. A strong central power, such as we have now under the Constitution of the United States, with a President, Congress and a Supreme Court, did not then exist. There was a Congress which sat at Philadelphia, but it had very little power, and it did not command much respect either at home or abroad. Quite naturally, then, the people of the western country felt that they would have to look after their own interests; for the government on the other side of the mountains seemed to care so little for their welfare, and it would have been unable to do much even if it had cared more. Indeed, some of the westerners thought they would be better off if they separated from the East and formed an alliance with Spain.

General Wilkinson.—Finally, one of the leading men in Kentucky decided to try out the Spanish authorities in Louisiana and see if the people of his district could not do for themselves what the Congress could not do for them. This was General James Wilkinson. He had been a brigadier-general during the Revolutionary War, and soon after peace came he joined those who were moving westward into Kentucky. When he saw how the people were being forced to store their produce in barns and warehouses on account of the danger that it might be seized by the Spanish authorities if they sent it down the river, he decided to make a test case. In the spring of 1787, when the water was high, he and his neighbors got together a boat load of flour, hams, butter and tobacco, which he took down the river.



General James Wilkinson

At Natchez the officers examined the boat, but allowed it to proceed to New Orleans without paying the customs duties. At New Orleans the boat was seized, but when it was learned that it was General Wilkinson's Miro ordered that it be released, and allowed the goods to be sold. He feared that the Kentuckians would make the seizure an excuse for some hostile move against the Spanish. Miro sought out Wilkinson and showed him marked courtesy. He knew that it would not be wise policy to pick a quarrel with a Kentuckian of so much influence, and he hoped that by showing him special favors he might win the Kentuck-

ians over to the Spanish government, or at least bring them into closer relations with it. Spain at this time hoped to separate the people of the West from the rest of the United States and some day to annex all of the territory west of the mountains to her possessions in North America.

After his success on his first venture, Wilkinson later brought a large number of boats loaded with produce of his friends and neighbors to New Orleans, and these were not molested. The Spanish were unwilling, however, to extend this privilege to all comers, because that would have defeated their plan of making them feel the need of an alliance with Spain, and the problem of Mississippi navigation remained unsettled. The people in the West grew more impatient, and some of them even advocated withdrawing from the Union and forming an alliance with Spain in order to gain the necessary outlet to the sea for their products.

Spain Yields.—Meanwhile the American government had been strengthened by the adoption of the Constitution and the formation of "a more perfect union." George Washington was now president of the United States, and the republic was respected vastly more than it had been under the old Confederation. Thomas Pinckney, our minister to Spain, was instructed to negotiate a treaty giving the Americans the right of free navigatic of the Mississippi. The Spanish prime minister, however, kept avoiding a settlement of the question until Pinckney at length lost patience and prepared to leave Madrid. Then, to his surprise, the Spanish government suddenly changed front and granted all that he asked. There was a reason for this change. Spain and England were then about to go to war, and the Spanish feared that England and the United States might unite against her and seize her American possessions unless she opened the Mississippi to free navigation. By this treaty citizens of the United States got the right to navigate the river from its source to its mouth, and for three years they also got the "right of deposit" in New Orleans;

that is, the right to place their goods in warehouses and reship them without paying any duty. This "right of deposit" was soon to play an important part in the history of Louisiana. The treaty also fixed the northern boundary of West Florida at the thirty-first parallel, thus acknowledging the right of the United States to the control of the Natchez district, although Spanish forces were encamped there.

QUESTIONS

1. What lands adjoining the United States were held by Spain after the Revolutionary War?
2. Was Spain as friendly as she had been during the war? Why?
3. How did the westward movement of Americans affect the relations of Spain to the United States?
4. Why were the western people so insistent on the right to free navigation of the Mississippi?
5. What action by Spain angered the people of the West?
6. Why did some western people think of separating from the Union at this time? Was it the same sort of Union that we have to-day?
7. Who was General James Wilkinson?
8. How did the "more perfect union" under George Washington help settle the western problem?
9. Why did Spain suddenly grant the right of free navigation after long refusing to do so?
10. What was meant by the "right of deposit"?

XXVI

SPANISH AND AMERICAN RIVALRIES

Although Spain had promised the United States in 1795 that the navigation of the Mississippi River should be free, and had agreed to the thirty-first parallel as the northern limit of her possessions east of the river, she still held the Natchez district, which was north of the boundary-line, and kept a detachment of soldiers on duty there at Fort Panmure for some time after the treaty had been signed. Consequently the American boatmen descending the Mississippi to New Orleans had to pass under Spanish guns in territory which Spain had agreed was the property of the United States. This served further to irritate the western people.

Spanish Intrigues.—The reason given by the Spanish authorities in New Orleans for their refusal to observe the treaty and withdraw from Natchez was that Spain had then gone to war with England, and that they were afraid that the English might come down the river from Canada and overrun Louisiana if they gave up the fort at Natchez just at that time. The real reason why they delayed, however, was their expectation that the American Union would soon break up. The Spanish governors at New Orleans, as we have already seen, had hopes that they might gradually win the western settlers away from the Eastern States.

The American government sent two commissioners, Andrew Ellicott and Thomas Freeman, to Natchez soon after the treaty was approved to locate the boundary between the United States and West Florida and to take possession of the post. Gayoso, the Spanish commandant at Natchez, made all sorts of excuses in order to obtain delay. He pretended that he had to go to New Orleans and get the governor's authority for turning over the territory, and that he

had to have instructions from Spain whether to tear down the fort or to hand it over as it was. While making these excuses he was strengthening the defenses under the pretense of preparing against an attack from the Indians or from the English in Canada. He also declared that it was impossible for him just then to fit out a party to survey the boundary. The commissioners finally concluded that the Spaniards had no intention of giving up the territory if they could avoid it.

A "Quaker Conquest."—Most of the settlers in the Natchez were recent arrivals from the United States, and they were greatly aroused at the refusal of the Spaniards to observe the terms of the treaty. Ellicott encouraged them in their hostility. He raised the American flag over his quarters in spite of the protests of the officials, and also brought a detachment of soldiers to Natchez and won the Choctaw Indians over from the Spaniards. He encouraged all persons in the district discontented with Spanish rule to visit his quarters, and it was not long before he had a majority of the inhabitants on his side. In this way he accomplished what at the time was called "a Quaker conquest," because he gained the victory without fighting and bloodshed.

The Spaniards tried to fight back in various ways. Gayoso told the landowners that they might lose all their property if the Americans got control of the district. Governor Carondelet at New Orleans threatened to drive Ellicott out by force and went so far as to order the colonial militia, numbering about twelve hundred men, to assemble at Baton Rouge for this purpose.

Americans in Revolt.—In the meantime the trouble at Natchez came to a head when Gayoso arrested a Baptist minister for making threats and imprisoned him in the fort. This action of a foreign officer against an American citizen on American soil so enraged the people that they rose against Spanish rule and compelled the officials and their

families to take refuge in the fort, where they were held virtually as prisoners. The Americans then organized several military companies, which armed and drilled so as to be ready for action at any time.

Committee of Public Safety.—The next step in the revolt was to call a mass meeting of the Americans to set up a form of government more to the people's taste. This meeting chose a Committee of Public Safety to represent the people in all dealings with the Spanish officials. It was also decided that no rules or orders should go into effect in the Natchez district until the committee had given them its approval.

Plans were made for Ellicott and Gayoso to meet at the house of a Captain Minor to discuss the new form of government. The Spanish officer was so distrustful of the Americans that he sneaked from the fort in a roundabout way, through woods and canebrakes, and finally gained the rear entrance to the house by creeping through a corn field. He was a very old man, and Ellicott was moved to pity when he saw how much suffering the outbreak had caused him.

Gayoso agreed to all the committee's demands, because he could do nothing else, and Governor Carondelet gave them his approval for the same reason. Having accomplished their purpose of gaining a voice in the government, the people quieted down, and the Natchez district for a time was peaceful.

Spain Again Yields.—Trouble came again, however, when Gayoso left Natchez to become governor of Louisiana. Carlos de Grand Pré was appointed to succeed him, but the Committee of Public Safety strongly objected to him and refused to receive him. This virtually put an end to Spanish rule in the district, although a garrison of Spanish soldiers still remained at the fort.

In the meantime General Wilkinson, now commanding the American forces above Natchez, sent Captain Isaac Guion

to Natchez to take charge of the administration there. Guion took matters into his own hands and paid very little attention to the Committee of Public Safety. He treated the Spanish officers with great respect and tried to persuade them to carry out the treaty. They again began to find excuses for delay, however, and Guion finally notified them that they must withdraw below the boundary by a certain date, or he would expel them by force. They did not wait for an attack, but before the given day arrived they placed all their ammunition and supplies on boats and barges in the dead of night and stole quietly away down the river. The next morning all the gates of Fort Panmure were observed to be wide open, and it was found on examination that the post was deserted.

It was in this way that the Spaniards observed the treaty. Their excuses and evasions made the Americans distrust them and fear that if the United States should ever have trouble with any other nations the Spaniards would be dangerous neighbors. The Americans especially disliked the idea of having such an important city as New Orleans, commanding the approach to the whole Mississippi Valley, in the hands of Spain. The revolt of the Americans against Spanish rule in the Natchez district is of especial importance in Louisiana history because it furnished an example that, as we shall see hereafter, was to be followed by the Americans living under Spanish rule in the district of Baton Rouge.

QUESTIONS

1. What promises did Spain make to the United States in the treaty of 1795?
2. Which of these promises did she fail to carry out, and what excuses did she offer?
3. What was the real reason why the Spaniards remained at Natchez?
4. What was the "Quaker conquest"?

5. What caused the Americans to rise against the Spanish authorities at Natchez?
6. What was the outcome of their revolt?
7. What happened when Colonel Grand Pré sought to take command at Natchez?
8. Who was Isaac Guion?
9. How did the Spaniards finally withdraw from Fort Panmure?
10. Why is this uprising in the Natchez district of importance in the history of Louisiana?

From Callot's *Atlas*

The Natchez Fort

XXVII

ÉTIENNE DE BORÉ MAKES SUGAR

In the same year in which the Cabildo was asking the king of Spain to put an end to the bringing of African slaves into Louisiana something happened on a river plantation just six miles above New Orleans that was soon to create a greater demand for slaves and lands than the colony had ever known before. In 1795 Étienne de Boré succeeded in making good sugar out of cane grown in Louisiana.

Early Efforts.—Many others had tried sugar-making before De Boré's time. Iberville himself brought some cane from Santo Domingo on his second visit to Louisiana in 1700, but it had turned yellow and sour before he planted it, and his efforts had no result. The Jesuits brought a variety of cane to the colony in 1751; it grew freely, but did not ripen enough in a single season to produce sugar. Seven years later Dubreuil, one of the wealthiest planters in Louisiana, undertook to make sugar and built the first sugar mill in the colony. He boiled the syrup until he got a thick gummy substance that was said to look like marmalade or jelly, but it turned back to syrup if left in a damp place. A quantity of this was packed in barrels and sent to France, but in the damp hold of the ship it melted and leaked out. In the next few years a number of other planters tried their hand at making sugar, but they had no better success than Dubreuil.

It was found that the gummy substance could be used in making a cheap grade of rum called tafia. This became a popular drink among the poorer classes, and Governor D'Abbadie wrote that "the immoderate use of tafia has stupefied the whole population."

Coming of the Sugar-Makers.—This was the situation in 1791, when the blacks of Santo Domingo rose in revolt. Among those who escaped the massacre and sought refuge in Louisiana were a number of expert sugar-makers. One of the Spanish officials, Antonio Mendez, and a refugee named Solis, decided to try sugar-making in Louisiana and they hired a sugar-maker from Santo Domingo named Morin to do the work. He succeeded in making a small amount of refined sugar, and it was shown around as a curiosity and finally used at a state dinner given by the intendant in New Orleans.

Jean Étienne de Boré

Étienne de Boré.—The first man to make sugar in profitable quantities was Étienne de Boré, and to him Louisiana owes one of its important industries. De Boré was born in the Illinois district in 1740. His parents took him to France when he was four years of age, and there he received his education and on reaching manhood joined the king's household troops, in which only members of noble families could serve. At the age of thirty-one he married Mademoiselle Destréhan, daughter of a former treasurer of Louisiana. His wife owned some lands in the colony, and it was this property that led to a return visit and to his finally settling on a plantation above New Orleans, where Audubon Park now stands.

Here De Boré engaged in the cultivation of indigo, like many other planters. The indigo industry was never very profitable in Louisiana, and at the time when the Santo Domingo refugees began to arrive the indigo planters seemed to be facing disaster, for an insect appeared in great numbers and ruined the leaves of the plants. In two years

four devastating hurricanes had swept up from the gulf and caused great loss of property. De Boré determined to abandon indigo and to try to make sugar. His wife and friends warned him that he was too old to risk what was left of his fortune in such an uncertain enterprise. But De Boré was determined to make a trial, and he engaged an experienced sugar-maker from Santo Domingo, and planted his land in cane.

"It Granulates."—The experiment attracted wide attention, and many of his neighbors shook their heads doubtfully and prepared to say "I told you so," when the failure which they predicted was announced. Finally the time came for grinding the cane, and a large crowd gathered at the sugar house to see what would happen. They watched the kettle of boiling syrup, and stood in anxious suspense when the time came to make the test. Presently the cry of "It granulates!" was heard, and at that moment a new industry was born in Louisiana. Instead of being ruined, as some of his friends predicted, De Boré made a clear profit that year of twelve thousand dollars, which was considered a big sum of money in those days.

The Louisiana planters were now happy. With one accord they abandoned indigo and turned to sugar. Within five years after De Boré's experiment they were exporting a million pounds of sugar a year, and De Boré was hailed as the savior of Louisiana.

Royal Visitors.—Among the interested visitors to De Boré's sugar plantation there came in 1798 three royal princes, in exile from France since the days of the reign of terror. They were kinsmen of the unfortunate King Louis XVI, and great-great grandsons of the Duke of Orleans, in honor of whom Bienville had named the city he founded eighty years before. The eldest of these brothers himself bore the title of the Duke of Orleans, and later was to become the king of France. When De Boré was a guard in the household troops of Louis XV he little dreamed that

some day three royal princes of that household would be his guests on a plantation in far-off Louisiana, and that one of these princes, later become king, would one day entertain in his royal palace a grandson of De Boré, the Louisiana historian Charles Gayarré. But all these things came to pass.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe the first attempts to make sugar in Louisiana.
2. What was tafia?
3. How did the slave revolt in Santo Domingo help Louisiana?
4. Early life of Étienne de Boré.
5. Why had the indigo industry in Louisiana failed?
6. Describe the first successful sugar-making.
7. What was the result of De Boré's success?
8. What royal visitors came to Louisiana at this time?

XXVIII

NAPOLEON GETS LOUISIANA

The revolution in France led to many years of turmoil, but in the end it brought to the head of that country one of the most remarkable men in history. This was Napoleon Bonaparte. After quieting the conflicts within the country and restoring orderly government, he next gave his attention to the enemies outside France, and in a number of brilliant campaigns he defeated some of the hostile nations and brought the others to agree to a truce.

With France now enjoying peace within and without its borders, Napoleon began to dream of reviving her colonial empire in the New World. The people of France had never ceased to regret the loss of Louisiana to Spain nearly forty years before, and they still clung to the hope that some day they might get it back.

Talleyrand.—One of the exiles from the French Revolution who spent some time in the United States, was a famous statesman named Talleyrand. He saw what a weak hold Spain had upon most of its possessions in North America, and he returned home with the idea that his country should take advantage of this situation and regain a foothold on this continent. Somewhat later Napoleon Bonaparte became supreme in France, and Talleyrand became one of his ministers. Napoleon not only wished to recover Louisiana but also to add to it East and West Florida. Charles IV, the new king of Spain, was a weak ruler, and Napoleon had no trouble in gaining his consent to part with Louisiana, which had proved as expensive a burden to Spain as it had been before to France. King Charles, however, would listen to no suggestions as to the sale of the Floridas, as he did not care to transfer loyal subjects of Spanish blood to a foreign ruler.

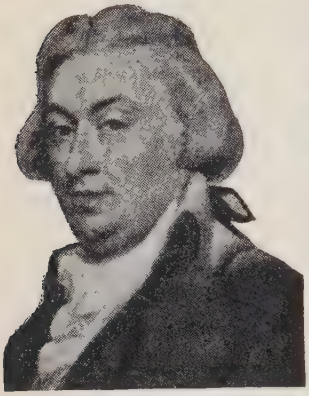
A Deal with Spain.—In return for the cession of Louisiana to France Napoleon proposed to create out of part of Italy a new country to be called the Kingdom of Tuscany and to make Charles IV's son-in-law its ruler. This arrangement was made in 1800, but the treaty providing the change of owners for Louisiana was kept secret for some time. At the last minute Charles IV showed that he was not as willing to give up the colony as he had been at first, and he would not sign the agreement in its final form until Napoleon's representative had given his written promise that France would never give up Louisiana to any other country.

Thomas Jefferson

A long time before plans were completed for the return of Louisiana to France rumors of the transfer reached this country and caused President Jefferson and his Secretary of State, James Madison, no little worry. The idea of having a powerful military leader like Napoleon in possession of such a large part of North America filled them with alarm. Jefferson had always been more friendly to France than to Great Britain, but he now declared that "from the moment that France takes New Orleans we must marry ourselves to the British fleet and nation." By that he meant that the United States and Great Britain might have to join hands to protect the Western States and Canada in the event that such an ambitious military leader as Napoleon should take Spain's place as a neighbor in the Mississippi Valley.

Robert Livingston.—Our minister in Paris at this time was Robert R. Livingston, a member of a famous New York family, and a brother of Edward Livingston, for whom a parish in Louisiana has been named. During our Revolu-

tionary War Robert Livingston had served on a committee with Jefferson when the latter drafted the Declaration of Independence. Later as Chancellor in New York he had administered the oath to Washington when he was first inaugurated president of the United States. When Jefferson became President he chose Livingston to represent this country in France. The choice was a good one. Livingston labored hard for the interests of his country, and Louisiana to-day owes him much for his zeal in seeking to obtain for the United States control over the lower Mississippi.



Robert R. Livingston

Jefferson asked Livingston to find out the intention of France with regard to Louisiana. Talleyrand, the minister of foreign affairs, at first denied that Spain had ceded the province, and this was partly true, because the Spanish king, as we have seen, hesitated before signing the treaty. When Livingston learned definitely that Napoleon was going to take over Louisiana he worked for many weeks in an effort to induce Talleyrand to sell New Orleans to the United States, so that the Americans in the West might always be sure of an outlet for their goods.

Trouble at Santo Domingo.—In the meantime Napoleon began his preparations to take possession of the province, but there was one stumbling-block in his path. There were prospects of another war between France and England, and unless the French had a fleet to keep English war-ships out of the gulf they would not be able to prevent their new possession from being captured. Napoleon thought Santo Domingo an ideal spot for a base of supplies and operations for his fleet, but you will recall that this colony had fallen

into the hands of the revolted slaves, whose leader, a negro named Toussaint L'Ouverture, had made himself master of the whole island. Napoleon planned to regain the lost colony for France and sent a splendid army there under the command of General Le Clerc, his brother-in-law. Toussaint was captured and taken to France, where he died in prison.

But there was another enemy that the French could not conquer. This was the yellow fever. It carried off the commander and at one time left only one man in seven fit for duty. A second army which was being raised in France to send to Louisiana was sent instead to fill up the ranks of the fever-smitten forces in Santo Domingo. The unexpected failure of the expedition to Santo Domingo thus held up Napoleon's plans for taking possession of Louisiana.

Right of Deposit Revoked.—Just about the time that the yellow fever was spoiling Napoleon's colonial schemes something happened that caused great excitement throughout the West and gave President Jefferson another difficult problem to handle. Don Juan Ventura Morales, the Spanish intendant of Louisiana, acting under secret orders from his home government, revoked the "right of deposit" at New Orleans. This act deprived the western farmer of a place to store his products without paying duty until they could be placed aboard ship for some eastern or European market. The right of deposit, as we have seen, was granted by Spain to the Americans by the treaty of 1795 for a period of three years. At the end of this time the right was allowed to continue, and under it in less than five years the number of ships and river boats coming to New Orleans had more than doubled. This had increased the American influence in the colony, and the Spanish Court desired to see it checked. The action of Morales led to such an outcry that it was revoked by the Governor Salcedo, but it gave the people of the South and West some idea of what might

happen if a stronger ruler than the Spanish king got control of the mouth of the Mississippi River.

Jefferson decided to calm these fears so far as he could by choosing a special envoy to go to Paris and Madrid and work with the American ministers there in persuading Napoleon and Charles IV to sell the island of New Orleans and the Floridas to the United States.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte affect the history of Louisiana?
2. Who was Talleyrand?
3. What bargain was made with Spain?
4. Why was President Jefferson worried when he heard that Napoleon had got Louisiana?
5. Who was Robert Livingston, and what did he try to get Napoleon to do?
6. Describe the revolt in Santo Domingo. Who was the leader of that revolt?
7. How did this cause Napoleon to change his plans?
8. Tell about Spain's withdrawing the "right of deposit."
9. What step did Jefferson then take?

XXIX

NAPOLEON SELLS LOUISIANA

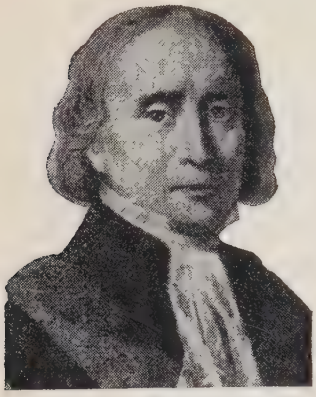
The man whom Jefferson chose for the difficult task of bargaining for the island of New Orleans and the Floridas was James Monroe. He had once before been minister to France and later was to become President of the United States. Monroe made all possible haste to go to Livingston's assistance, but there were neither railways nor steamships in those days, and in the weeks that preceded his arrival in Paris many important things happened.

At one of his frequent talks with the French Minister of Foreign Affairs on the subject of buying the island of New Orleans, Livingston was amazed when Talleyrand suddenly asked whether he would care to buy the whole of Louisiana, and if so what would he pay for it. Then he added that Louisiana would be worth very little to France without New Orleans and he would like to know whether the Americans would take the whole thing.

Napoleon Changes His Plans.—Evidently Napoleon had changed his plans. He believed that Louisiana would have very little value to him unless he could hold Santo Domingo as an outpost to defend it, and at that time he could not afford to waste any more men and treasure in an effort to regain the island colony. The failure of his expedition to the island appeared to have disgusted him with his whole scheme of a new colonial empire. He knew, too, that France would soon be at war again with England, and he told his brother Lucien that it was well worth while to sell what he was certain to lose anyway, for he believed that the English were "aching for a chance to capture it."

On Easter Sunday, April 10, 1803, Napoleon sent for his Minister of the Treasury, Barbé-Marbois, who had lived in

America and married an American woman, and who was a warm friend of Livingston. Napoleon told him that he had decided to sell the province to the Americans to prevent its falling into the hands of the English. He would not only block the English designs on the Mississippi by doing this, but he would also be strengthening a young nation that might some day become a keen rival of the British.



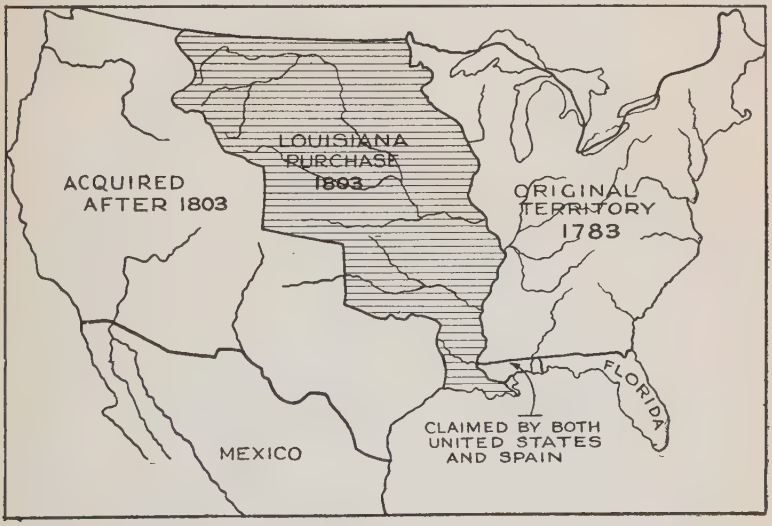
François, Marquis de Barbé-Marbois

The Offer of Louisiana.— When Napoleon made up his mind he always acted quickly, and the very next morning at daybreak he sent for Marbois again and entrusted to him the task of selling the whole of Louisiana to the United States. He stated that he was certain of a war with England, and that he would need much money and did not want to make the people pay more taxes. He knew that Monroe was on his way to Paris, but told his minister not to wait for his arrival, but to go ahead and make the bargain with Livingston, and to obtain not less than fifty million francs ($10,000,000).

It so happened that on the very next day Monroe arrived in Paris. On the day following he and Livingston were dining together, and on looking out of a window they saw Marbois strolling in the garden. He was an old friend of both the Americans, and they called him into the dining-room and were soon discussing Napoleon's offer. Monroe had been instructed to treat only for territory east of the Mississippi and to offer not more than two million dollars for it. Napoleon's offer was so different, and involved so much more territory, and so much more money, that Mon-

roe and Livingston at first were uncertain what they should do. Napoleon was in too great haste for them to write to Jefferson for further advice, as it would have taken several months to get a reply, and they finally decided to go beyond their instructions and buy the whole of Louisiana. How wise they were we now know full well.

The Sale Completed.—Once this important question was decided the three friends worked rapidly, and by the end



Addition to United States by Louisiana Purchase

of April the treaty was ready to be signed. The price agreed upon was fifteen million dollars. "To-day," said Livingston, after he had attached his signature, "the United States take their place among the powers of the first rank." He was right. Napoleon at the same time remarked that he had "given England a rival who, sooner or later, will humble her pride." But Napoleon was wrong. A little more than a century after the purchase of Louisiana the nation that Napoleon in this way had helped to build was the ally of the two former rivals, England and France, and with

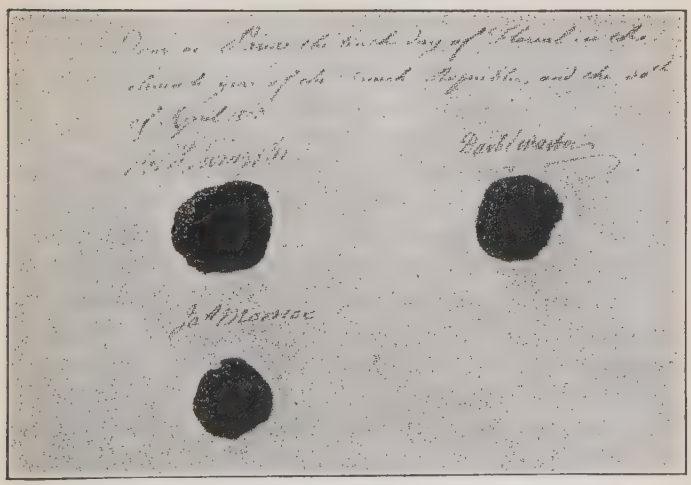
them was fighting another nation that had grown up after Napoleon's time and like him had grasped at supreme world power, only to fail as miserably as he did. That nation was Germany.

When the treaty reached the United States no one was more surprised than Jefferson. His ministers had done more than any one in this country had dreamed was possible. Heretofore Jefferson had always opposed the giving of much power to the Federal government, and yet the treaty meant an extension of this power beyond anything yet attempted by any other president. Nevertheless, he thought the benefits from the treaty too great to allow political objections to stand in the way. Opposition to the treaty developed only in the New England States, although the leaders in that section had previously denounced Jefferson very bitterly for seeming to neglect the welfare of the people in the West. New England politicians now declared that the treaty violated the Constitution; that the adding of so many foreign people to the nation would destroy the Union, and that fifteen million dollars was too much, anyway, to pay for a "wilderness." In the rest of the country, however, the people approved the purchase, and it was accepted by the Senate and the money was provided by Congress with very little opposition.

A Big Event.—Next to the winning of American independence and the formation of the Union under the Constitution the purchase of Louisiana from France is regarded as the most important event in the history of the United States. By this act the area of the United States was practically doubled and out of the vast territory thus acquired there have been formed thirteen states which to-day contain over twenty million people, or nearly four times as many as were in the entire country at the time that Louisiana was acquired.

QUESTIONS

1. Whom did Jefferson send to Paris to aid Livingston?
2. Why did Napoleon wish to get rid of the whole of Louisiana?
3. Who was Barbé-Marbois?
4. Why were the two Americans uncertain whether to accept Napoleon's offer?
5. What did they finally decide to do?
6. What price was paid for the province?
7. What did Jefferson do when he heard of the purchase?
8. How was the Louisiana Purchase regarded in New England?
9. Why is the Louisiana Purchase one of the most important events in American history?



Facsimile of the Signatures to the Treaty Ceding Louisiana to the United States

XXX

UNDER THREE FLAGS IN TWENTY DAYS

At the time when Napoleon obtained Louisiana there were many people in the province who could remember the days when they had been under the French flag thirty-five years before, and some of these were happy to learn that they were soon to be under that flag again. But most of the inhabitants showed little interest in the news. They had come to see that their welfare was more closely bound up with that of the United States than with that of any country in Europe. What they desired most of all was the right to trade freely with their Americans neighbors, and they felt that they were no more likely to gain this under France than they had been under Spain.

Laussat.—On March 26, 1803, just two weeks before Napoleon announced to Barbé-Marbois his intention of selling Louisiana to the United States, Pierre Clément Laussat, the Colonial Prefect, arrived in New Orleans to prepare for taking over the province in the name of France.

Governor Salcedo, who had succeeded Gayoso, was old and feeble, and the Marquis de Casa Calvo was sent over by the Spanish government to assist him in making the transfer. Casa Calvo was related to O'Reilly and was with him in New Orleans at the time of the execution of the revolutionists. The officials received Laussat with much ceremony, and in the weeks that followed his arrival the officers of Spain and France spent much time in entertaining and banqueting one another.

Laussat issued an address to the citizens, stating that they had been handed over to a foreign ruler by a wicked and detested king but that the French people had never forgotten them and that France had now got rid of her kings

and was going to rescue them from tyranny and place them under a free government at whose head stood a great and just man. Some citizens of French descent replied in writing, but they made it plain that while they welcomed the return of France they had no cause of complaint against the Spanish government.

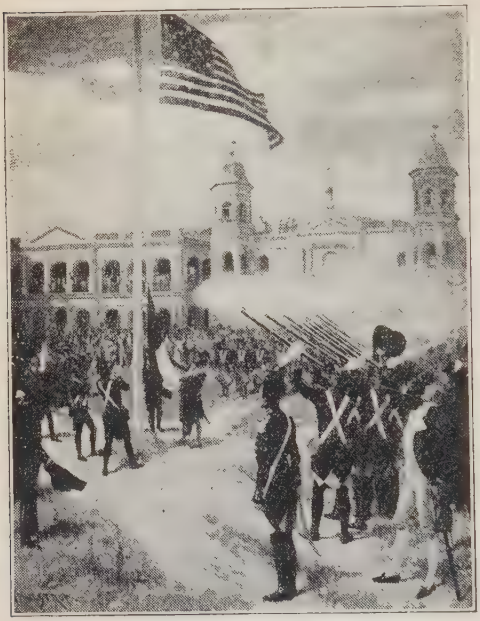
Laussat's position was in some ways like that of Ulloa. He had come to Louisiana with no forces behind him to uphold his authority and was awaiting troops that were to follow him before taking possession of the province. In the meantime he feared that the Spanish authorities in Louisiana were secretly using their influence against him. He waited in vain for the promised soldiers, because these, as we have seen, had been sent instead to Santo Domingo to fill up the ranks of the smitten army of General Le Clerc.

Under the French Flag.—It was eight months after Laussat's arrival before he took possession of the province, and then he did so only that he might act as Napoleon's agent in passing it on to the United States. The formal ceremony of transferring Louisiana from Spain to France took place on November thirtieth, a cold, gloomy day. To Laussat this was not a pleasant task, for as he took possession he knew that the hold of France upon the vast territory would last only a few weeks, but he congratulated the people on the fact that they would soon be citizens of the American Union. The Spanish flag in the Place d'Armes was hauled down, but the French flag that was raised in its place was quite different from the royal standard of the Bourbon kings that Aubry had lowered on O'Reilly's arrival in New Orleans in 1769. The Bourbon lilies had given way to the red, white and blue flag of the French Republic.

Although Laussat was in office but a short time a number of changes were made in the government of the province. A new code of French law, based on the Code Napoleon, was published and the Cabildo of Spanish days was replaced by a municipal council. Étienne de Boré, the father

of the sugar industry in Louisiana, became the first mayor of the town.

Seventeen days after Laussat took possession the American commissioners, W. C. C. Claiborne, governor of the Mississippi territory, and General James Wilkinson, appointed by President Jefferson to receive Louisiana for the United States, arrived with an escort of troops and went into camp two miles above the city. They notified Laussat of their arrival, exchanged visits with him, and made all plans for the ceremony of transfer. Then on December twentieth, just twenty days after passing from Spain to France, Louisiana again changed hands.



Raising the American Flag at New Orleans during the Ceremonies Attending the Transfer of Louisiana

Under the Stars and Stripes.—It was a bright, balmy day, quite unlike the dark, rainy one on which Laussat received the province for Napoleon. The militia companies of New Orleans assembled early in the Place d'Armes and marched in review before Laussat, who stood on the balcony of the Cabildo. Just before noon the boom of a cannon announced that the American troops had left their camp. As they passed through the Tchoupitoulas gate a salute of twenty-

one guns was fired from the forts, and the troops escorting the commissioners soon filed into the Place d'Armes and were drawn up in line opposite the militia. Claiborne and Wilkinson dismounted and entered the Council Room of the Cabildo. There the reading of the treaty and other documents connected with the transfer took place, after which Laussat delivered to Claiborne the keys of the city and led him out upon the balcony before the citizens and soldiers in the square. Here in a loud voice Laussat freed the people of their allegiance to France and presented their new American governor. Claiborne made a short address in English which very few of his hearers could understand, assuring the citizens that the people of the United States would regard them as brethren and protect them in the free enjoyment of their liberty, religion and property and encourage their agriculture and commerce.

As this ceremony ended, the flag of France was slowly lowered, and the Stars and Stripes went up as the French flag came down. When the flags met midway of the staff they hung for a moment together, while a gun was fired. Then the Stars and Stripes went to the top as the flag of France was lowered into the arms of a French officer. He carried it off to the barracks while the American troops stood at present arms, and the gaily dressed ships in the harbor fired a salute.

Thus Louisiana had been under three different national flags, and the last of these still flies over all the vast territory gained by the Louisiana purchase and over much more besides, for our country did not cease to grow with the addition of the province dropped into its lap by the great Napoleon.

QUESTIONS

1. Were the Louisianians glad to come under Napoleon's rule?
2. Who were: Laussat? Salcedo? Casa Calvo?
3. Why did Laussat wait so long before he took possession for France?

4. What had happened while he was waiting?
5. Describe the transfer of Louisiana to France.
6. How long did the French flag fly over New Orleans?
7. Were any changes made in the government during this short period?
8. Give the details of the transfer of Louisiana to the United States.
9. Who were: Claiborne? Wilkinson?

Old Gate and Stairway,
Cabildo Building

XXXI

NEW ORLEANS IN 1803

The city which witnessed the events described in the preceding chapter was not the pleasant and attractive place that we know to-day. In many ways it was wholly unlike any other American city. New Orleans at this time was a walled town. On one side was the river, shaped like a new moon or crescent, and from this came the name of Crescent City, which is often applied to the place.

The ramparts, or walls of upright logs driven into the ground, enclosed the town on its land sides, and on the river side ran the levee. The town within the walls extended a mile along the river and about a third of a mile back from it. Outside the ramparts was a ditch, or moat, forty feet wide and seven feet deep. The earth that had been removed where the ditch was dug was banked against the logs on the inside. The moat and rampart on the upper side of the town were on the present site of Canal Street.

At the points where the rampart joined the river there were two forts—Fort St. Charles on the upper, and Fort St. Louis on the lower side. These two forts were enclosed by earthen walls eighteen feet thick and covered over with a layer of brick. Along the wall behind the city there were three smaller forts, which had been built by Carondelet more to keep peace within the city than to repel enemies from without.

In the walls were four gates through which the people passed in and out during the day, but at night they were closed and carefully guarded. On the lower side was the gate of France, opening on a road leading down the river. On the upper side was the Tchoupitoulas gate, which opened on a road of the same name leading through a suburb known

Jackson Square—New Orleans

as the Faubourg Ste. Marie. Here dwelt mainly newcomers,—some French and Spanish, but mostly Americans. A gate in the rear wall of the town opened on the bayou road, where another community outside the walls—the Faubourg St. Jean—was growing up.

In the middle of the enclosed town was the Place d'Armes (now Jackson Square) open to the river on one side, and with the Cabildo, Cathedral and Presbytery on the opposite side.

The removal of most of the restrictions on trade by the last Spanish governors had greatly increased the commerce of the city. Ships and river craft often extended along the whole river front, sometimes two or three deep. While New Orleans at this time had a population of less than ten thousand, it had already become one of the greater seaports of America. In 1802 the foreign commerce of the city reached a value of four and a half million dollars. The levee was a busy place, serving not only as a landing for vessels, but also as a market where the buying and selling of sugar, molasses, cotton, tobacco, flour, hams, pork and all other sorts of produce were conducted. It was here that the rude backwoodsmen of the Western States met with sailors from all over the world. Boats bringing their produce down the river usually advertised their cargo by hanging a sample at the top of a pole, and it was a common thing to see along the levee an ear of corn, a ham, or even a jug of whisky, swinging high in the air.

Growth of Trade.—Large business houses in the eastern cities of the United States had begun to set up branch stores in New Orleans, and many signs of wealth and fashion were in evidence. A gentleman from Philadelphia who visited New Orleans a few months after the cession to the United States wrote that the streets were more alive with people and more active with business than were those of Philadelphia, which was then America's largest city. Another thing which impressed this visitor as peculiar was the carts

whose wheels and axles of solid wood made a peculiar squeaking sound as they moved through the streets. The Spanish governors required the use of this type of cart, because its noise helped to prevent smuggling.

The streets had been laid out by La Tour nearly a hundred years before. They were straight and fairly wide, but they were not paved, and after a hard rain they were al-

The Cabildo

most impassable for vehicles. As the land was low and flat, ditches had been dug on both sides of the street for drainage, but these were often allowed to become choked with weeds and rubbish and after a rainstorm whole squares would be flooded. On some of the streets there were plank walks, called banquettes, but they had their dangers, as the planks were uneven and sometimes loose and treacherous. A line of logs was laid on the outer edge of a dirt sidewalk

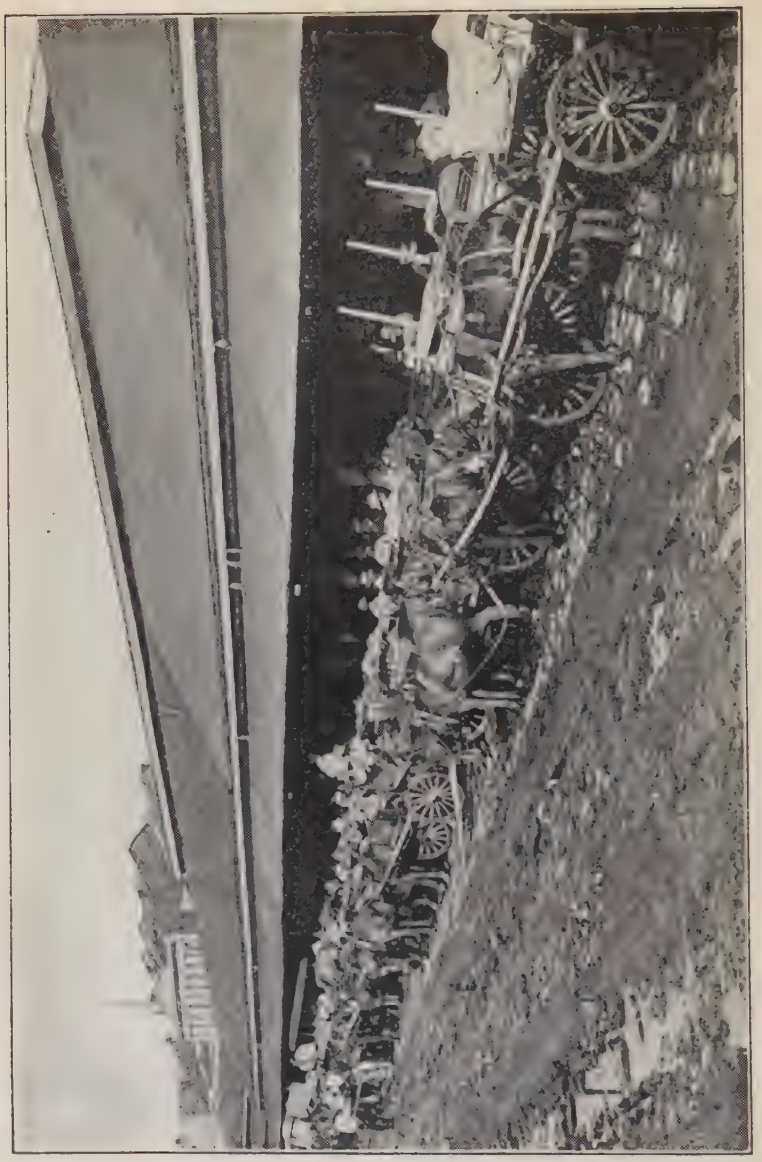
to prevent its caving into the ditch and people would walk on these in wet weather to keep out of the mud. In dry weather crawfish holes were numerous along the ditches.

The Spanish authorities were to blame for the bad condition of the streets. For about a year before the United States took possession they had known that the province was going to change hands, and so they spent no money for repairs and improvements. The forts and rampart were also in bad repair, but this was not an important matter, since they would serve no useful purpose after the province passed under American control.

Fine Buildings.—While the streets were poorly cared for, the buildings won the admiration of visitors from other cities. Near the river the houses were mainly of brick, with tiled roofs, stucco walls, inner courts, and broad galleries ornamented with railings and bars of wrought iron. The Cabildo at this time was the finest public building in America, and the St. Louis Cathedral was one of the finest churches. But there were no hotels or taverns, as in other American cities. There were many lodging-houses where rooms could be had, and the coffee-houses served meals.

Amusements.—The coffee-houses were also favorite places of gathering for social entertainment, especially on Sunday, which was a day given over largely to festivity. There was a theater which always gave a performance on Sunday evenings, and on at least one other day in the week. Whenever a play was to be presented this would be announced by the beating of a drum. Sunday morning was always a busy time for the shops and markets. In warm weather the levee was the favorite place of promenade after sunset. At an earlier time the levee was shaded with willow and orange trees, but most of these had disappeared to make room for the growing business on the water front.

While the number of American inhabitants had been slowly increasing ever since the Revolutionary War, and while there was also a considerable Spanish element in the



Old French Market, New Orleans

city, New Orleans in 1803 was in nearly all important respects still a French city. The government for over thirty years had been Spanish, and now it was American, but the language and customs were mainly French. Even many of the Spanish governors, as we have seen, married French-speaking wives. The Ursuline nuns who were brought over from Havana to teach Spanish to the girls in the convent were soon teaching French instead. The raising of the Stars and Stripes did not bring any sudden change in the habits of the Creoles, but in the course of time the English language and American customs gained headway, though to this day much of the French culture remains, blended with the American, and making New Orleans a city that is unique among its American sisters.

QUESTIONS

1. In what ways did New Orleans in 1803 differ from other American cities?
2. What was the Place d'Armes? The Faubourg Ste. Marie?
3. Tell about the growing trade at New Orleans.
4. Describe the condition of the streets.
5. What were some of the most imposing buildings in the city?
6. What were some of the chief forms of entertainment in 1803?
7. Was New Orleans at this time more American, Spanish, or French in its manners and customs? How do you account for this?

XXXII

RURAL LOUISIANA IN 1803

At the time when the province of Louisiana was ceded to the United States the number of people living within the limits of the present state was about fifty thousand. As we have seen, about ten thousand of these lived in the city of New Orleans. Let us now take a look at the forty thousand who lived on the plantations along the river and bayous and out on the prairies to the west of the Mississippi.

The Country Districts.—In 1803 the rural settlements within the present limits of Louisiana were divided roughly into twenty different districts whose boundaries were not well defined. The district along the river below New Orleans was known as the Lower Coast, and it is still so designated at this day. The only other settlement below the city at that time was called St. Bernard, after the bayou along which its inhabitants—Isleños from the Canary Islands—had taken up lands. It marked the beginning of St. Bernard Parish. Between New Orleans and Lake Pontchartrain many plantations had sprung up, mainly along Bayou St. John, which gave its name to this district.

When a traveler left New Orleans and proceeded up the river he would first pass through a section called the Upper Coast, which extended along the Mississippi for about fifteen miles. Next he would come to the German Coast, so called because it had been settled by Germans sent to Louisiana by John Law. Then he would pass the First and Second Acadian Coasts. Above the Acadian Coasts was the district of Iberville, which on the east bank extended to Bayou Manchac. Above this stream lay the district of Baton Rouge in West Florida. Above the Iberville district on the other bank of the river was the district of Pointe

Coupée, much larger than the present parish of that name. There were very few settlers on this side of the river between Pointe Coupée and the Arkansas River, as levees had not yet been built in this region and it was sometimes flooded.

To the west of the Mississippi numerous settlements had sprung up along the more important bayous. There was the district known as Lafourche after the bayou of the same name, and the Attakapas district, which included the settlements along Bayous Têche and Vermilion.

The two Acadian Coasts, Pointe Coupée, and the districts along the bayous just named were settled mainly by the exiles from Acadia, or Nova Scotia. These people differed somewhat in manners and customs from those who came to Louisiana directly from France. The descendants of the Canadian exiles are still known to-day as Acadians, to distinguish them from the other Creoles. The first comers to the colony had the choice of the best lands, and they set up their plantations within easy distance of the capital on the clean, smooth banks of the Mississippi. The Acadians had to settle farther up-stream or along bayous in the interior.

The Creole Plantations.—In 1803 there was an unbroken chain of plantations on both banks of the river from New Orleans as far up the stream as the head of Bayou Lafourche, where the town of Donaldsonville now stands. Farther on the chain was broken by strips of uncultivated land. Just above New Orleans the plantation homes were rather imposing, but farther up-stream they became smaller and less pretentious. The homes of some of the well-to-do planters were built of brick, with rows of columns in front and sometimes extending entirely around the house. Other houses were built of rough squared timbers with the space between them filled with mortar, and the whole covered with whitewash. The houses usually had galleries, which were necessary in the warm climate, and which not only

shaded the houses from the sun's rays but served in the summer as a place for entertaining company and sometimes for eating and sleeping, as they still do.

One feature of the Creole house is the formation of the gallery by an extension of the roof some feet beyond the walls of the house and supporting it there with columns. The slaves usually lived in log cabins set back in rows some distance from their master's dwelling. Many houses were raised high from the ground, the better ones supported by brick pillars, and the others by trunks of large trees. Raised houses were thought to be cooler and to have fewer mosquitoes than those which were not elevated.

The Land of the Acadians.—The Acadian country a hundred years ago had a life of its own. Its people, unlike the planters along the Mississippi, held small farms, owned very few slaves, and did most of their own work. They were descendants of peasants who had gone to Acadia from the poorer districts of France, and it is not surprising that they knew very little of books. They were bashful in the presence of strangers, but were noted for their simple hospitality and were always ready to share their plain fare with a visitor. Their chief article of food was Indian corn, which they prepared for use in a number of ways. They ground it into meal to make the familiar corn bread as well as mush and porridge, and they broke it into small grains and cooked it with just enough water to keep it moist to make a dish which they called *petit gru*, the ancestor of our modern "grits." They used the corn in coarsely broken grains, to make a favorite dish called *sagamité*, which may still be found on the Creole table. Before going on a journey or a hunting trip the Acadian parched his corn and then ground it into a meal which was convenient to carry and always ready for use in various ways as food.

Living upon a rich soil, with the woods at his back door filled with game and the bayou at his front door well stocked with fish, the Acadian farmer felt no need of severe labor.

The river or bayou offered not only food but an easy means of travel and of getting his produce to market; the woods furnished not only game but also fuel and building material. It was no uncommon thing at this time to find in the Acadian country a house in which no iron or other metal had been used when it was built. Even the locks, bolts and keys would be made of wood. Carts were also made without iron, their parts being held together with wooden pegs and strips of rawhide.

The Attakapas Country.—In the Attakapas region cattle raising was the chief industry, and it has been described by Longfellow in his poem *Evangeline*. The animals were left to graze on the prairies without much attention, and were very poor specimens as compared with the pure-bred stock being raised in this district to-day. In spite of the large herds, milk and butter were rarely seen, and the Acadians would go for months without tasting either. In the Opelousas district, just north of the Attakapas country, cattle raising was also the chief industry, and some of the more prosperous herdsmen branded over a thousand head a year.

Although the rural districts were thinly settled, the people had their social gatherings, and their chief form of amusement was dancing. They would often travel for an entire day in order to attend a ball. On such an occasion the guests would arrive by pirogue or wagon, on horseback or afoot, and would take their seats on long wooden benches ranged against the cabin walls. One or more "fiddles" furnished the music, and everybody, from grandparents down, joined in the dance. In warm weather the dances were often held out-of-doors. Various kinds of refreshments would be served, ranging from Creole gumbo to tafia weakened with water. While these people lacked the polish of the wealthy Creole planters and merchants, they showed a trace of French gallantry which made them seem much more refined than the English-speaking pioneers from the

West who came to New Orleans every winter by flatboat.

The Backwoods Settlers.—At various points along the Red and Ouachita Rivers there could be found at this time the lonely dwellings of settlers from the English-speaking regions to the north and east. They were the advance guard of the great army of Americans that was soon to sweep over northern and western Louisiana. It was said that the few French-speaking people in these regions dreaded the coming of the rough American pioneers into their neighborhood almost as much as they did an Indian uprising. The purchase of Louisiana opened the gates to newcomers from the states, and they came in such great numbers into northern Louisiana that this part of the state to this day remains different in many ways from the southern section.

QUESTIONS

1. How many people lived in Louisiana about 1803? How many of these were in the city and how many in the country?
2. What were the Upper Coast and Lower Coast?
3. How did the German Coast get its name?
4. What were the Acadian Coasts? In what other districts were the Acadians also found?
5. Describe the home of a well-to-do planter at this time.
6. Tell what you can about Acadian customs and manners in 1803.
7. What other kind of people were settling along the Red and Ouachita Rivers at this time?

XXXIII

TERRITORY OF ORLEANS

In the treaty by which the United States obtained Louisiana it was provided that the people of the province should have all the rights and privileges enjoyed by the citizens of the rest of the country. This agreement was said to have been put into the treaty at the suggestion of Napoleon himself. When the United States took over Louisiana, however, the people did not get at once what had been promised to them, and for a time they were far from happy under their new government.

Louisiana Divided.—Congress on March 26, 1804, passed a law which divided Louisiana into two parts. The part south of the thirty-third parallel was called the Territory of Orleans, and all north of that line was called the District of Louisiana. The Territory of Orleans contained most of the population, but if you look at a map you will see that it formed a very small part of what was known as Louisiana under French and Spanish control. The people of Orleans Territory disliked very much to see their great province cut up in this way, and they also did not like the change in the name of the portion in which they lived. They wanted Louisiana to remain as one great state, nearly as large as the rest of the states put together, and they wished to keep the name to which they had become attached.

But this was only a small part of the things which tended to make the people unhappy. Congress seemed to think that they were poorly fitted to govern themselves, and allowed them a very small part in the affairs of the new territory. It gave them a governor, but he was appointed by the president. It also provided a Legislative Council to make laws, but this body was selected by the governor and

not chosen by the people. Congress was even unwilling to permit the council to make laws unless they were submitted to it for its approval or veto. It also forbade the bringing of slaves into the territory from foreign countries. Slaves were permitted to be brought from other states only by citizens of the United States who were moving into the territory.

People Dissatisfied.—Both these measures greatly displeased the people. They were indignant when they learned that they had received far fewer rights from Congress than had been given to the inhabitants of the Mississippi Territory, and they resented the idea that they were less fitted to govern themselves than were their next-door neighbors. Elsewhere, too, people were allowed to obtain slaves from other states, and could even import them from Africa until 1808. The people of Orleans Territory thought therefore that Congress was depriving them of their needed supply of labor when it prohibited the bringing in of slaves except when the owners moved in as settlers.

One of our greatest historians, Henry Adams, has said that even the lowest tribes of Indians had more rights of self-government than the members of Congress were willing at first to give to the people of Orleans Territory. Congress acted in this way because it was afraid to allow much freedom to a people having a foreign language and strange customs. It thought they should have little voice in the government until they had grown more familiar with American ideas and laws.

A number of the leading Creoles became so dissatisfied with their treatment from Washington that they refused to hold any office under the territorial government, and Étienne de Boré resigned his position as mayor of New Orleans in order to show how bitter he felt on this question.

The use of English as the official language also displeased the Creoles, who said that it made them feel like foreigners in their native land. All legal papers were drawn up in

English and French, but when cases came before the courts for trial the evidence of the witnesses and the judge's charge were interpreted so that both the English-speaking and French-speaking members of the jury could understand. No attempt was made, however, to interpret the speeches of the lawyers from one language into the other. Evidently what the lawyer had to say was thought much less important than what was said by the judge and witnesses.

It finally became the custom when a lawyer addressed the jury in English for the members who could not understand that language to leave the court-room and go out in the hall of the court-house and smoke their pipes until he had finished his argument. If a French-speaking lawyer followed him, the jurymen who could understand only English would retire in their turn. This often made it necessary for persons with important cases to hire two lawyers, so that their side could be presented to the jury in both languages.

Petition to Congress.—The discontent of the people with their treatment by Congress led them to hold several meetings in New Orleans and to adopt a petition to Congress asking for a larger measure of self-government. This petition was written by Edward Livingston, a brother of Robert R. Livingston, who had done so much to obtain Louisiana from France. Three well-known citizens—Pierre Derbigny, Pierre Sauvé, and Jean Noel Destréhan—were chosen to go to Washington and lay the case before Congress. They created a favorable impression, and the Congressmen, after hearing them, had a higher opinion of the people for whom these men spoke.

New Form of Government.—As a result, a new act was passed on March 2, 1805, which gave the people the same rights as were enjoyed by the inhabitants of Mississippi Territory. They got a territorial legislature whose lower house was chosen by vote of the people. This body sent to

the president the names of ten men, from whom he selected an upper house of five members. The three spokesmen in Washington had urged that the territory be admitted to the Union as a state. This was not granted, but the act provided for its admission when its population amounted to sixty thousand.

QUESTIONS

1. Did the people of Louisiana get at first all the rights promised them in the treaty?
2. How did Congress divide up Louisiana?
3. Why did this displease the people?
4. How was the Territory of Orleans to be governed?
5. What fault did the people find with this plan?
6. What restrictions were put on the bringing of slaves into the territory?
7. Why did Congress distrust the people of the territory?
8. Tell about the use of English and French in the courts.
9. What was done in order to get better treatment by Congress?
10. What was the result?
11. Under what conditions was the territory to become a state?

XXXIV

WILLIAM C. C. CLAIBORNE

President Jefferson had appointed William C. C. Claiborne governor of the Territory of Orleans. You will remember that when Louisiana was transferred to the United States Claiborne and General Wilkinson had been selected as commissioners to receive it. Claiborne was the first American governor, and he held the office for thirteen years. No other governor of Louisiana except Bienville had served for such a long period. Just as Bienville may be called the builder of Louisiana as a colony, so we may think of Claiborne as the builder of Louisiana as a state. Under his administration Louisiana passed through the territorial period preparatory to statehood, and he continued to hold the reins and guide its development for four years following its admission into the Union.

Claiborne was born in Virginia, and as a young man had moved to Tennessee. At the age of only twenty-one he had helped draw up the Constitution for that state, and later was elected to Congress from Tennessee. While in Congress he helped to secure the election of Jefferson as president and to defeat the schemes of Jefferson's opponent, Aaron Burr, whom many people regarded as a dangerous man. We shall see later that Burr visited New Orleans while Claiborne was governor, and that Claiborne once more was called upon to oppose his ugly plots against the country's welfare.

Claiborne's Troubles.—Claiborne had been serving for about two years as governor of the Mississippi Territory when Jefferson transferred him to the Territory of Orleans. He was then only twenty-eight years of age, but

he had already had wide public experience. His first years as governor, however, were filled with trouble. He could speak neither French nor Spanish, and the Creoles complained that he did not understand their ways and needs, and accused him of showing a preference for the Anglo-Americans. Many of the latter whom Claiborne appointed to office showed some of the same distrust of French-speaking people that Congress had already shown, and their attitude was hotly resented. When people of such different types were brought together in this way it was natural that there should be misunderstandings, and it required time for them to become better acquainted and to learn one another's good qualities.

William Charles Cole Claiborne

Complaints.—The people thought that their territorial government was too much of a one-man affair. They complained that Claiborne had not only the powers of the old Spanish governors, but also those of the supreme judge and of the intendant, the latter of whom in Spanish and French days looked after the commerce and revenues. They pointed out that under Spanish rule it was always possible to appeal from the decision of a governor to the captain-general in Havana, but from Claiborne's decisions there was no appeal.

Another thing that added to the discontent was the scarcity of money, as compared with the days of Spanish rule. While the Spaniards held Louisiana they brought a large quantity of silver coin from Mexico every year to pay the expenses of the province. When this stopped

coming money became scarce, and people began to complain of hard times. To relieve this situation Governor Claiborne set up the Bank of Louisiana to supply the needs of the planters and merchants for currency and credit. The people, however, would not trust the new bank at first, and for a time it could give them very little assistance.

Troublesome Neighbors.—In addition to his trouble arising from the discontent and the misunderstanding of the Creoles, Claiborne had much trouble for a time with his Spanish neighbors in Florida and Texas. Both the eastern and western limits of the territory were a subject of dispute with Spain. Texas was then a part of Mexico, and Mexico was still held by Spain. The United States claimed that the boundary between Texas and the Orleans territory was the Sabine River. The Spaniards in Texas disputed this and actually sent troops into the territory to a point within fourteen miles of Natchitoches.

A garrison of United States troops was stationed at Natchitoches, and Claiborne sent some companies of militia there to help hold the Spaniards at bay. General Wilkinson was later sent to Natchitoches, and when he ordered the Spanish authorities to withdraw their troops across the Sabine River they did so. Wilkinson then marched his own troops to the east bank and encamped opposite the Spanish forces across the stream. The Spaniards did not again invade American territory, but it was not until 1819 that the dispute over the western boundary was settled.

Eastern Boundary.—There was also a dispute with Spain concerning the eastern boundary. Although the American government claimed that West Florida was part of the Louisiana Purchase, the Spanish authorities still held the region and maintained a military post at Baton Rouge. The district above Baton Rouge, called by the Spaniards New Feliciana, was being rapidly settled at this time by

English-speaking Americans. In some way a report was spread throughout this region that the Spanish government had ceded New Feliciana to the United States, and a party of about two hundred men were so anxious to see the Stars and Stripes floating over the district that they could not wait to learn whether the report was really true and made an effort to drive out the Spanish authorities.

Their plans went wrong, however, and three brothers named Kemper, who were leaders in the plot, fled for safety into Mississippi Territory. Some armed men in disguise rode across the border one night, seized them, and handed them over to the Spanish authorities. They were being taken down the river to Baton Rouge, and when they were opposite Pointe Coupée Lieutenant Wilson, of the United States army, discovered and captured the whole party.

There was more serious trouble with the Spaniards in the Baton Rouge district some years later, as we shall see soon. But now a new danger appeared when rumors began to spread in New Orleans of a gigantic plot to split the Western States and Territories off from the rest of the American Union. Eventually reports centered on Aaron Burr as the leader of this movement.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell something about Claiborne's early life.
2. Why was he not popular at first among the Creoles?
3. What were some of the complaints against him?
4. Why did he establish the Bank of Louisiana?
5. Tell about the boundary disputes with Spain.
6. What was New Feliciana, and what troubles occurred there?
7. Who were the Kemper brothers?

XXXV

THE BURR CONSPIRACY

At first the Creoles in Louisiana were not happy under their territorial government. As we have seen, they felt that Congress thought them unable to govern themselves, and that they were held under stricter control by their American governor than they had ever been under any Spanish official. In other parts of the Mississippi Valley there were many restless individuals who were plotting various reckless ventures in the vast unsettled regions beyond the river or against such weakly held possessions of Spain as Texas and the Floridas. The power of the Federal government was hardly in evidence beyond the Appalachian Mountains; the American Union was then young and weak, and the people in the remote territories did not then have the respect for its authority or appreciate its value as all good citizens do to-day.

The news of this discontent reached the East through the delegates whom the Creoles had sent to Washington to air their grievances, and one of those who talked with the delegates and who became greatly interested was Aaron Burr, former vice-president of the United States. Burr was an able politician, with much charm of manner, and at one time had a great number of followers. He lacked only one electoral vote of being elected president of the United States in 1800, when Jefferson was chosen. While vice-president he had killed Alexander Hamilton, former Secretary of the Treasury, in a duel, and with that he was in disgrace and his political fortunes in the East were at an end.

The Plot.—Burr decided that there was a chance for him to regain his lost influence by fishing in the troubled waters

of the West and Southwest, and he decided to visit these sections and look into the prospects. He crossed the mountains to the Ohio River and then went down the Mississippi.

One warm evening in June, 1805, as the Creoles of New Orleans came out to the levee, according to their custom, to promenade and enjoy the river breeze, they were surprised to see a handsome barge or houseboat coming down the stream. It presently tied up at the levee, and its owner came ashore. This was Burr. During his trip down the river he had been well received everywhere and had met many prominent men, such, for example, as Henry Clay and Andrew Jackson. In New Orleans he was entertained by Governor Claiborne and other leading men in the city, who found him a most attractive guest.

Aaron Burr

Burr in New Orleans.—We do not know what plans Burr had in mind at this time. Probably he was merely seeking to find out what scheme seemed most likely to succeed. After remaining in New Orleans ten or twelve days he departed for St. Louis, promising to return in the autumn. He did not do so, but instead went back East. It seems that by this time he had an idea of splitting the discontented Southwest from the Union and making an independent nation out of it with himself at its head, or of driving the Spaniards from Texas and the Floridas. He may even have planned to do both of these things.

In Washington he interested the British minister in his schemes, and the latter tried to get a loan from his govern-

ment to aid Burr, but the British would have nothing to do with the project. Burr then promised the Spanish minister that if he succeeded in splitting off the West from the Union he would protect the Spanish colonies from seizure by the United States. On the strength of this promise the Spanish minister lent him a sum of money and tried to get more from his government, but failed.

In the meantime, the United States had become engaged in the dispute with Spain over the boundary between Louisiana and Texas already described. Spanish troops, as we have seen, at one time held the territory nearly up to the town of Natchitoches, and Spanish agents were busy trying to spread discontent among the Creoles. Casa Calvo, the former governor, and Morales, the intendant, had remained in New Orleans, and Governor Claiborne strongly suspected them of plotting against the American interests, and finally expelled them from the territory.

Burr in the West.—By this time Burr had reached the West again. He had bought a claim to the vast tract of land that had been granted by Carondelet to Baron de Bastrop, and he now planned to settle a colony on it. He collected, therefore, a quantity of provisions, tools and arms and a number of flatboats to take his men and supplies down the river. Many wild rumors were afloat concerning his plans. It was reported that he was descending the Mississippi with a thousand western riflemen, and the number soon grew to several thousand.

Many Rumors.—It was thought that Burr intended to seize the Spanish fort at Baton Rouge, and use this as a base of operations to effect the separation of the western country from the United States. From Pensacola the Spanish captain-general of the Floridas, Vizente Folch, rushed to Baton Rouge to defend it against Burr. As he passed New Orleans Claiborne refused to allow him and his troops to enter the city; for he suspected that the Spaniards really intended to aid Burr in separating the West from the East,

and he would take no chances by admitting their soldiers to the capital of the territory.

Burr had written a letter to his former friend, General Wilkinson, stating his purpose of coming down the river with a force of armed men. Wilkinson at once sent this letter by special messenger to President Jefferson, and took some of his soldiers and hurried to New Orleans. There he arrested several of Burr's agents and sent them away in a ship, and busied himself with steps to prevent an invasion of the territory.

While these things were taking place in New Orleans Jefferson had issued a proclamation warning American citizens from joining Burr's expedition and ordering Federal officers to break it up. By the time word of the president's action reached Burr's headquarters on the Ohio the expedition had already started down the Mississippi. Burr had hoped to enlist a large force of westerners in the event that fighting broke out between Americans and Spaniards on the Texas border, but when this dispute quieted down he had to content himself with only about eighty men.

When Burr reached Bayou Pierre, about thirty miles above Natchez, he was arrested by Mississippi authorities and released on bail. The governor of the Mississippi Territory then ordered him arrested a second time, but Burr had disguised himself and struck off into the woods with a single companion. A reward was offered for his capture, and he was taken prisoner at Fort Stoddard, Alabama. From there he was taken to Richmond, where he was tried for treason and acquitted.

At no time did the Creoles show any sympathy with Burr, and General Wilkinson's preparations to prevent an uprising in New Orleans against the Federal government rather disgusted them at first and amused them later. The chief effect of Burr's scheme was to show the Spanish neighbors in Texas and the Floridas that it was useless

for them to hope for the separation of the western country from the Eastern States, but that on the contrary the western people were more likely to seize Spanish territory and add it to the Union.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell about Aaron Burr's early life.
2. Why did he think Louisiana a good place in which to carry out his scheme?
3. Describe his visit to Louisiana.
4. What schemes did he seem to have in mind?
5. What help did he get in Washington?
6. Tell about Claiborne and the Spanish plotters in New Orleans.
7. What colonizing plan did Burr develop?
8. Describe his second journey down the river, and his flight and capture.
9. What steps did General Wilkinson take to prevent trouble in New Orleans?
10. Did the Creoles show any sympathy with Burr's schemes?

XXXVI

A DISPUTE OVER BOUNDARIES

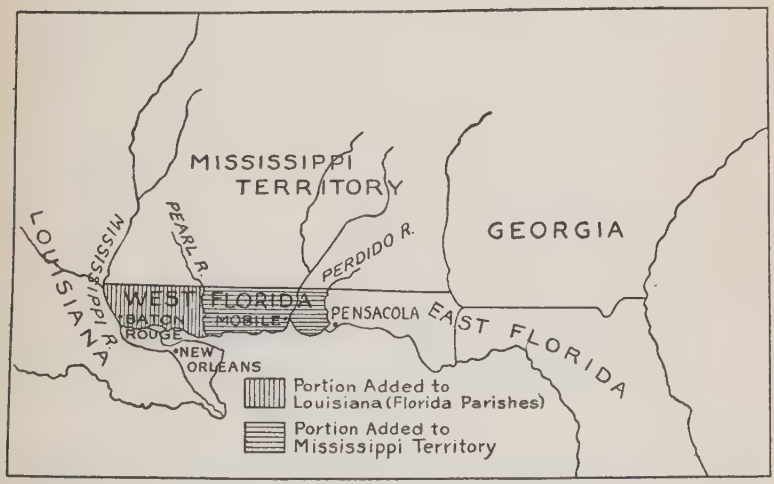
The treaty by which the United States obtained Louisiana from Napoleon said very little about the boundaries. The French ministers told Monroe and Livingston that they were selling to them all that they had got from Spain, but they were unable to say just how much that was. The question then arose whether Spain had given back to France all that had once been called Louisiana in the days of Bienville, or whether she gave up only that part called Louisiana in the time of Napoleon.

This was an important matter. In Bienville's time Louisiana extended east to the Perdido River, or nearly to Pensacola, but in Napoleon's time all of the Spanish territory from the Mississippi to the Perdido, except the Island of New Orleans, had been cut off from Louisiana and made into a different province called West Florida.

Treaty Not Clear.—In the words of the treaty, the United States received Louisiana "with the same extent that it now has in the hands of Spain, and that it had when France possessed it." The Americans claimed that this meant that they were to get Louisiana as it was before France gave it to Spain. In that case they would have a right to West Florida. The Spaniards replied that they did not receive West Florida when they got Louisiana in 1763, but that they obtained it from the British twenty years later. On that point they were right. We have already seen that when France gave Louisiana to Spain at the end of the French and Indian War West Florida was cut off from it and given to England, and that the British flag was raised over Baton Rouge and Natchez. Then in 1783, at the end of the Revolutionary War, the British gave the

Floridas back to Spain. For the forty years from 1763 to 1803, then, West Florida was not part of Louisiana.

West Florida.—The Spanish government insisted that when Napoleon took back Louisiana he did not get West Florida as a part of it, and that he did not, therefore, include that province in what he sold to the United States. On the other hand, the Americans claimed that they had purchased Louisiana with "its ancient boundaries" and that West Florida now belonged to the United States. A



Disputed Territory, 1810-1812

dispute thus arose between Spain and the United States. The Americans claimed that their territory extended as far east as the Perdido River, and the Spaniards claimed that it went no farther than Bayou Manchac, or the Iberville River, as this stream was sometimes called.

The Americans desired to secure West Florida for two reasons. In the first place, so long as the Spaniards held it they had a grip on the Mississippi River and a chance to interfere with its navigation. This opened up again the problem of moving goods from the Western States to the

sea. In the second place, West Florida contained the town of Mobile, whose harbor afforded an outlet to the sea for the settlers in Alabama, just as New Orleans furnished an outlet for the settlers on the upper waters of the Mississippi.

American Claims.—Most of the people who lived in this region at the time of the Louisiana Purchase were Americans, and they naturally preferred to be under the government of the United States. Spanish rule, however, was mild, and as the inhabitants knew that the United States had laid claim to the region they were looking forward to the day when they would be under the American flag. The hold of Spain upon the territory was so weak that they felt sure that the United States could take possession whenever it saw fit to press its claim.

Fear of Napoleon.—It was not long, however, before all this was changed. Napoleon had suddenly made himself master of Spain, as he had already mastered France. To live in a Spanish colony under a mild and weak ruler like Charles IV was quite a different thing from being at the mercy of a powerful man like Napoleon. The change of rulers greatly disturbed all the Spanish colonies in the New World, and a number of them rose and threw off the Spanish yoke.

This discontent at the turn things had taken showed itself among the Americans in West Florida. Most of the people in this province lived west of the Pearl River, and it was in this section that outbreaks against Spanish authority began. The people did not want Napoleon Bonaparte for their ruler, and most of them wanted to be brought into the United States.

That part of West Florida north of Bayou Manchac and extending from the Mississippi to the Pearl River was known as the district of Baton Rouge. Carlos de Grand Pré was the Spanish governor in this district. He was a popular official, and so long as he remained in office mat-

ters went smoothly, but his superior officers thought that Grand Pré was too easy-going, and that he failed to uphold the dignity of the Spanish government. He was therefore removed and ordered to report to the Spanish captain-general in Havana. In that city Grand Pré became ill and died.

Charles de Lassus succeeded Grand Pré, and he soon found that the people of this district were determined to take things into their own hands. In the summer of 1810 about five hundred citizens met at a farm near Bayou Sara and decided to set up a convention, which was to meet when it chose and lay taxes and do whatsoever else was needed for the general safety and welfare of the people. This convention, consisting of fourteen members, held its first meeting on July 26, 1810, at the house of Richard Duvall, and acted as if it were the regular government.

This was something unheard of in a Spanish colony. It meant that the people proposed to turn their backs on the Spanish officials and set up their own government. De Lassus could do nothing to check this movement, as he had only about twenty soldiers in the whole district. Moreover, the leaders of the convention pretended all the time that they were trying to help De Lassus carry out the law. They even proposed to raise taxes to pay his salary so that he would not have to wait to get it from Spain. They said that they ought to do this to aid the mother country, which was then at war against its invaders, but their real purpose was to make De Lassus entirely dependent on the people for his support. De Lassus sent messengers to Folch at Pensacola and to the captain-general at Havana with urgent requests for help, but none came. He then sought to keep the people quiet by pretending to agree to all that they had done, though hoping later to obtain enough forces to put an end to these acts of rebellion against Spain and to punish the leaders.

In the meantime the convention chose a sheriff, three

judges and officers of militia and then voted taxes to pay the salaries of these officers. This was a common thing in the American states, but not in a Spanish colony. What really had happened was that the Americans who had gone into West Florida had succeeded in taking their own form of government with them.

QUESTIONS

1. How did the eastern boundary of Louisiana in Napoleon's time differ from what it had been in Bienville's time?
2. How did the Spaniards interpret what the treaty of 1803 said on this point?
3. How did the Americans interpret it?
4. Why did the Americans insist on including West Florida as part of Louisiana?
5. What sort of people lived in this district?
6. What effect did Napoleon's rise in Europe have on the American colonies of Spain?
7. Who were Grand Pré? De Lassus?
8. Describe the creation of the "convention."
9. What changes did it seek in the government?
10. Why did De Lassus pretend to agree to these changes?

XXXVII

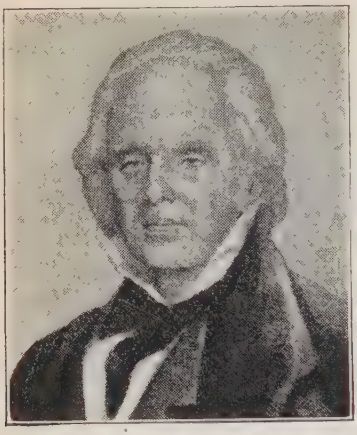
THE TAKING OF WEST FLORIDA

While the Americans in the district of Baton Rouge had set up their own form of government, they suspected that the Spanish officials had agreed very unwillingly to the changes which had been made. In September, 1810, they heard reports that Folch, the captain-general of the Floridas, was raising a force in Pensacola which he intended to bring into the district and use to put an end to the work of the convention and punish its leaders. These leaders then decided to strike for the independence of the district before the Spanish forces arrived, and the first step in their plans was to capture the fort at Baton Rouge and expel its garrison.

This fort was in bad condition. The Spanish government had sent no money to the province for its repair, and the stockade of logs which enclosed the powder magazine and the soldiers' quarters was tumbling into ruins, and there were several large gaps in it. The fort was manned by only twenty soldiers, and owing to sickness only about a dozen of them at this time were fit for duty. De Lassus, the governor, did not live at the fort. There were four other officers, and only two of these lived there. In addition to the regular Spanish soldiers, there were a few militiamen in Baton Rouge who took turns in doing guard duty.

Attack on Baton Rouge.—When word came of the plans of Folch and De Lassus to overthrow the convention some of its members hastily gathered at Bayou Sara, and ordered Colonel Philemon Thomas, who had been appointed commander of militia, to raise a force of volunteers and capture the fort. Some persons friendly to the Spanish author-

ities got word of these plans, and sent two messengers from Bayou Sara, one by boat and the other on horseback, to warn De Lassus that Baton Rouge was going to be attacked. He got the messages, but with the small force under his command there was little that he could do to meet the oncoming Americans. About one o'clock in the morning a third messenger arrived and informed De Lassus that the fort was going to be attacked at daybreak. The governor went to arouse the other officers living in the town, and while he was doing this the Americans struck their blow.



Major-General Philemon Thomas

About eighty men who had gathered at Bayou Sara and Springfield met on the road to Baton Rouge and reached the town at two o'clock in the morning. They crept up to the fort in the darkness. It was a foggy night, and the guards did not know that the Americans were near until they came rushing through the gaps in the palisade shouting "Hurrah for Washington." As the keeper of the powder magazine was asleep in the town and had the keys with him, it was impossible to use the cannon, and it was too late to attempt this anyway when the attacking party was already within the fort. Lieutenant Louis Grand Pré, a grandson of the former governor, Carlos Grand Pré, ordered his men to fire, but only two Spaniards had fired their guns before the Americans emptied their pistols in the direction of Grand Pré's voice, and he fell mortally wounded. Lieutenant Metzinger, the only other officer in the fort, was also wounded. One other soldier was killed

and two wounded. The Americans came through without a scratch. De Lassus was taken prisoner.

The Lone Star Flag.—The Spanish flag over the fort was replaced by the Lone Star flag, a blue banner with a white star in its center. It represented the claim of West Florida to be a free and independent state. Soon after the capture of Baton Rouge the convention met again in St. Francisville and issued a declaration of independence. Following this it prepared an address to the American government asking that West Florida be annexed to the United States. In the meantime it took over all the powers of the Spanish government, provided for a tax on lands, and took possession of all the public moneys. The convention next adopted a constitution somewhat like that of the United States, and set a date for the people to elect a legislature. On November twenty-sixth the new legislature met and chose Fulwar Skipwith as the first American governor of West Florida. Plans were then made to raise a large force under Philemon Thomas to drive the Spaniards from Mobile and Pensacola. A considerable body of troops was raised for this purpose, but action by the Federal government brought these preparations to an end.

Madison's Proclamation.—You will remember that the American government since 1803 had claimed West Florida as part of the Louisiana Purchase, but it had taken no active steps to take over the disputed territory. When President Madison heard of what had been done at Baton Rouge he decided that the United States should take over West Florida at once and thus avoid any further conflicts between the Americans and the Spaniards in this region. He therefore issued a proclamation declaring that West Florida belonged to the United States as a result of the purchase of Louisiana, and ordering Governor Claiborne to take possession of it as a part of the Territory of Orleans. He called upon the people of the district to respect the

governor's authority and obey the laws of the territory and of the United States.

The leaders of the West Florida revolt thus got what they had fought for, but they did not get it in the way that they had wished. They had hoped that the President would take notice of what they had done and annex West Florida to the Union as a free and independent territory. When he failed to do this and announced instead that this had been American territory for some years they were greatly disappointed. But at any rate they were glad to be taken into the Union at last.

Claiborne Takes Possession.—In preparing for a march against Mobile and Pensacola the forces at Baton Rouge had been raised to four hundred, and the fort was quite different from what it had been with its weak Spanish garrison. All the military preparations were abandoned, however, when Governor Claiborne arrived to take possession for the United States. The four hundred men marched out of the fort, stacked their arms, and saluted the Lone Star flag for the last time as it was hauled down and the Stars and Stripes were raised in its place. To this day that part of Louisiana which once formed part of West Florida is known as the "Florida Parishes."

For a time Orleans Territory and its neighbor, Mississippi Territory, both wished to annex West Florida. At Governor Claiborne's suggestion it was divided. All east of the Pearl River was given to Mississippi, and all west of it became part of Louisiana, when these states entered the Union. Although the Spaniards had been driven out of the disputed region, Spain continued to claim it until 1819. In that year she not only gave up her claim to West Florida, but also ceded East Florida to the United States.

QUESTIONS

1. When did the American leaders in the Baton Rouge district decide to strike for their independence?
2. What was the condition of the fort and garrison at Baton Rouge?

3. Describe the capture of the fort.
4. Who were Louis Grand Pré? De Lassus?
5. What was the Lone Star Flag, and what did it signify?
6. What did the West Florida Convention do after the capture of Baton Rouge?
7. What action did President Madison take on hearing of the capture?
8. Did this please the West Florida leaders? Why?
9. What did Governor Claiborne do on reaching the fort?
10. What was finally done with West Florida?
11. What are the "Florida Parishes"?

XXXVIII

STATEHOOD

In spite of the fact that the citizens of the territory did not like the way they were governed more people kept moving in, and the population grew very fast, especially in New Orleans and along the Mississippi River. New Orleans had already become one of the chief seaports of North America, and was becoming noted as a city of culture and refinement. While Americans were pouring into the territory from the states, there was also a new inflow of Creoles from the West Indies.

West Indian Immigrants.—During the slave insurrection in Santo Domingo many of the French planters in that island fled to Cuba for safety and took up lands there and began again to grow sugar cane. The climate of Cuba is very like that of Santo Domingo, and they were able to make their living in their new home, but they were under a different flag, that of Spain. All went well until Spain and France went to war, just a few years after Napoleon had sold Louisiana to the United States. The French in Cuba then found themselves no longer welcome there. They were so distrusted and suspected by their Spanish-speaking neighbors that many of them decided to remove to Louisiana, where they would be comfortable among a people speaking their own language. England and Spain were also planning attacks on all the islands of the West Indies held by France, and many people from these colonies also sought safety in Louisiana.

By the middle of July, 1809, nearly six thousand persons had arrived from the West Indies. About a third of these were slaves, and, as we have seen before, slaves could not

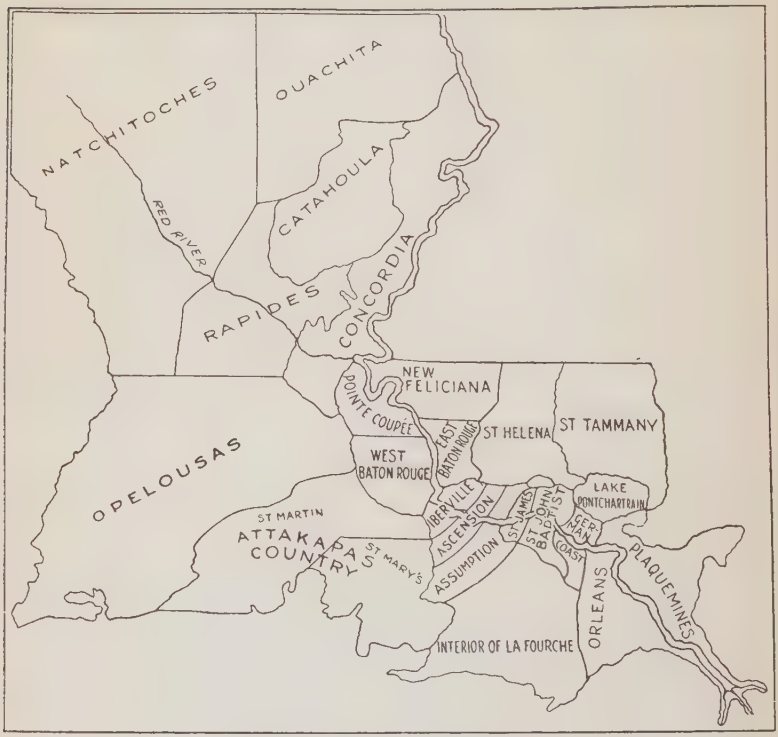
be lawfully brought into the territory from foreign countries. In this case, however, the circumstances were so unusual that the newcomers were allowed to enter with their slaves. The number of refugees increased until about ten thousand arrived. In addition to whites and their slaves, there were a large number of free negroes. Many of the newcomers had left their homes very suddenly and brought little or nothing with them, and for a time it was a hard task for the officials of the territory to take care of so many helpless people.

Counties and Parishes.—While the population was thus growing rapidly along the Mississippi, it increased scarcely at all at this time in that part of the territory north of the Red River and west of the Ouachita. Just as towns now grow up along the railroads, so a hundred years ago they tended to grow along the waterways. With the increase of its population the territory was divided into twelve counties for carrying on the local government, but a few years later a change was made and the territory was redivided into nineteen parishes. Some of these in South Louisiana followed the lines already drawn by the church, and like the church parishes they took the names of saints and still bear them to-day, as you may see by looking at a map of the state. Louisiana is the only state in the Union divided into parishes. What are called parishes in this state are elsewhere known as counties.

Ready for Admission.—When Congress gave the territory an elected legislature in 1805, it also provided that it should be admitted to the Union as a state when it had as many as sixty thousand inhabitants. In 1810 a census was taken, and it showed that the population was 76,556, or many more than were required for statehood. Julien Poydras, the delegate of the territory in Congress, made a speech calling attention to this fact, and early in January, 1811, a bill for admitting the Territory of Orleans into the Union as a state began to be debated. Some of the mem-

bers from the New England States bitterly opposed the measure.

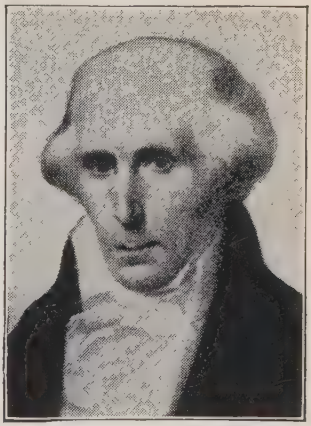
This was the first time it had been proposed to make a new state out of lands that had not once been part of the Thirteen Original States, and some members of Congress



Early Parishes of Louisiana

from the East dreaded to see any increase in states west of the Mississippi. The admission of this one, they feared, would soon be followed by the admission of others, and it would not be long before the new states would outnumber the old ones, and the influence of the latter in the government of the country would be greatly weakened.

Talk of Secession.—Josiah Quincy, of Massachusetts, boldly declared that his state might withdraw from the Union if the Territory of Orleans became a state. "If this bill passes," he said, "the bonds of the Union are virtually dissolved." He added it would be the right of any state, and the duty of some of them, to prepare for a separation from the others, peacefully if they could, but violently if they must. You will note, then, that the first threats of secession came from the spokesman for a New England state.



Julien Poydras

In spite of this opposition, the bill passed Congress by a large majority. It provided that the people of the territory should choose members of a convention to draw up a constitution for the new state, and that this constitution should in turn grant to all citizens civil and religious liberty and the right of trial by jury. It is interesting to note that Congress insisted that the new constitution must provide that all laws and court proceedings should be in English.

A convention to draw up the new constitution met in New Orleans on November 4, 1811, and finished its work on January twenty-second, following. Julien Poydras served as its president. It gave to the new state the name of Louisiana, which had been taken from it when the Territory of Orleans was created. The new constitution was satisfactory to Congress and on April 8, 1812, the president approved a bill passed by Congress admitting Louisiana to the Union. Six days later the boundaries were enlarged by adding to the state all that part of West Florida that lay west of the Pearl River. Governor Claiborne, who had

administered the affairs of the territory for nearly nine years, was elected the first governor of the new state. This shows that he had gained greatly in popularity since the first years of his service.

New Constitution.—The first constitution of Louisiana was in many ways very different from the one which is now in effect. It stated, for example, that no citizen might become governor unless he owned five thousand dollars' worth of property, and no one could be a member of the legislature unless he owned at least five hundred dollars' worth. The men who drew up the constitution were unwilling to place very much power in the hands of the people. They voted for a governor, but the final choice was placed in the hands of the legislature. The names of the two candidates who had received the highest number of votes were laid before the legislature, and it chose one of these for governor. You will note that it was not required to choose the one for whom most of the people had voted.

Eight years later Thomas R. Robertson received the largest number of votes for governor and Pierre Derbigny the second largest number. A majority of the legislature favored Derbigny, but he let it be known that he would not accept the office when most of the people preferred another man and asked all his friends in the legislature to vote for Robertson. From this time on the legislature always chose as governor the candidate who had received the most votes of the people, and in 1845 a new constitution was adopted which took the final choice from the legislature and left it with the voters. At this time, too, the requirement that the governor and members of the legislature should own a certain amount of property was abolished, and the right to vote was given to every free white male twenty-one years of age who had lived in the state for two years.

QUESTIONS

1. In what two ways did the territory receive more immigrants?
2. What events led to arrivals from the West Indies?
3. Tell about the coming of the West Indian Creoles.
4. Tell about the origin of the parishes.
5. Why did New England object to the territory becoming a state?
6. Describe Josiah Quincy's threat of secession.
7. Give the details of the admission of the state into the union.
8. What territory was added to Louisiana soon after its admission?
9. What were some of the peculiar features of the state constitution?
10. What changes were made in 1845?

Seal of the
State of Louisiana

XXXIX

THE COMING OF KING COTTON

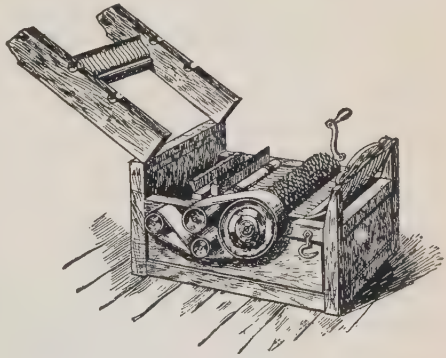
Just a short time before Étienne de Boré was planning to produce sugar on his plantation a young man named Eli Whitney left Massachusetts to teach school in South Carolina. He made the journey from New York to Savannah on a sailing vessel, and another passenger on this ship was a Mrs. Greene, the widow of General Nathaniel Greene, one of the greatest soldiers of the Revolutionary War. Mrs. Greene was a woman of good judgment and formed a high opinion of young Whitney, who had just graduated from Yale, and she invited him to visit her plantation near Savannah before he went out into the country to take charge of his school.

This plantation was known as Mulberry Grove, and had been given to General Greene by the state of Georgia in return for his services to the country during the war. It was a splendid estate, and Mrs. Greene, being very wealthy, lived in a fine colonial mansion with fifty servants on the place. It was indeed very like some of the fine plantations that existed at that time in Louisiana along the lower Mississippi. The young New Englander found the live oaks, the mocking birds, and the alligators in the Savannah River quite different from what he had seen in his northern home, but what interested him especially was cotton, which was grown to a small extent at Mulberry Grove and on other plantations.

At night, when the slaves were through with their work in the fields they would sit before their cabins around a blazing log fire and patiently separate the cotton seeds from the lint by hand. It was a slow and tedious business, and

when a few pounds of cotton had been prepared in this way it would be taken up to the "big house" and there drawn and twisted into yarn on a spinning-wheel and then woven on a hand loom into homespun.

Whitney's Invention.—One day a number of guests came to Mulberry Grove for a visit. They began to talk about cotton, and one of them stated that if only some quick and easy way could be found to get rid of the seeds cotton planters would soon make a fortune. Mrs. Greene had seen Whitney make some very clever toys for her children, and she told her visitors that there was a young man in her house who she believed could do anything. He was called from his room, and when told of what had just been discussed he stated that he had already been working on the idea. The result was that Whitney was given a special work-shop on the plantation, and instead of teaching a country school he became an inventor. In a very short time he had built a small machine, or gin, which would clean as much cotton in a day as fifty men could handle by the old method.



Eli Whitney's Cotton-Gin, from the Model in the Patent Office

Spread of Cotton Culture.—This invention led to great changes in both the South and New England. Cotton before this had been raised only in a very small quantity, but it now became the leading crop of the Southern States. Its cultivation spread quickly in Louisiana, and before long it was a rival to sugar and then surpassed it as a leading crop. New Orleans became a great cotton market, with

steamboats bringing quantities of cotton from Tennessee, Arkansas, Mississippi, and northern Louisiana for shipment to Europe and to the mills of New England. The levee was piled high with cotton bales, and merchant vessels came in greater numbers than ever before to take the valuable material over the seas.

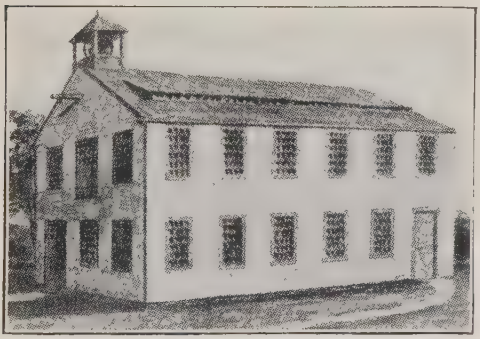
The raising of cotton on such a big scale greatly increased the wealth of Louisiana and the other Southern States. Many tobacco growers in Virginia, for example, took their slaves and moved down into the lower Mississippi Valley, because cotton was a more profitable crop. There was much buying of cotton lands by the newcomers, and there also sprang up a great demand for slaves to work the fields.

Effect on Slavery.—One of the most important results of Whitney's invention was the effect which it had on slavery. Before the days of the cotton gin slavery had almost ceased to be profitable. There were slaves in every state of the Union when George Washington became president, but the people in the Northern States were finding slavery unprofitable and the number of slaves in that part of the country was decreasing. In Virginia also the planters were not finding slavery a source of profit, and many planters had freed their slaves. There was also some talk of doing away with slavery altogether.

All this was changed, however, with the invention of the cotton gin and the growth of the big cotton plantations throughout the South. At the time of the Louisiana Purchase, in 1803, there were nearly as many slaves in the state of New York as in all of Louisiana, but in 1810 Louisiana had more than twice as many slaves as New York. In the next ten years the number of slaves in Louisiana more than doubled. What was happening in this state was taking place wherever cotton could be raised in any quantity. Throughout the South people declared that cotton was King, and at that time cotton and slavery went hand in hand.

QUESTIONS

1. Tell about Eli Whitney's visit to the South.
2. Was much cotton grown at that time?
3. How was it prepared for spinning?
4. How did Whitney come to invent the gin?
5. What were the effects of the invention on cotton growing?
6. What were the effects on slavery?



First Cotton Mill in the United States
Old Slater Mill, Pawtucket, Rhode Island

XL

THE COMING OF THE STEAMBOAT

In the last years of Spanish rule and in the early years of American control there was a great increase in the traffic borne up and down the Mississippi River. The canoe and the pirogue were no longer used for bringing heavy goods long distances, as they were in Bienville's time, but had given way to the flatboat and the keelboat. The flatboats got their name from their broad, flat bottoms, and boats like these may still be seen on the river to-day, but they are used in a different way.

The Flatboats.—At the time of the Louisiana Purchase flatboats that could carry as much as five hundred or six hundred barrels of farm products would be loaded on the upper waters and floated down to New Orleans. The only power to bring them down-stream was the current of the river. It usually took five men to handle one of these flatboats, and the journey down the river was a rather dangerous undertaking. The river was full of snags, and there were sharp bends and treacherous currents, so that it often required all the boatmen's skill to prevent a wreck and the loss of the valuable cargo. To avoid these perils the flatboats traveled only by daylight, tying up at the bank at night.

There were also dangers from Indians and river pirates, who sometimes held up the boats and plundered them, and to avoid this risk the boats usually came down the river in fleets of as many as twenty at a time. A rude shed protected the cargo from the weather, and provided sleeping quarters for the crew, and these made the boats look like the pictures we see of Noah's ark. They usually started south with the winter rise that followed the first melting

of the snow in January or February. The current was always swifter when the water was high and this reduced the time of the journey. There was also less danger during high water from snags.

Keelboats.—The flatboats only moved down-stream. They could not be carried back against the river current, and when they reached their journey's end and the cargoes were unloaded the boats would be sold for the wood they contained. For carrying goods both up and down stream an entirely different type of boat was used. This was the keelboat, or barge. It had a rounded bottom and a keel or wooden ridge on the bottom that ran the full length of the boat. It was towed up the river by ropes carried by men on the bank, and also had sails that could be used when the wind was favorable. Flatboats could not be used in this way, because the ropes would drag them close against the bank, where they would soon be stuck fast in the mud. A keelboat, however, could be steered and kept out in the stream.

As you can see, the trip up the river was very slow and laborious, compared with the ease of floating down. The boatmen toiled very hard in all sorts of weather, and rarely made as much as twenty miles a day. The rope was fastened to the top of a mast near the bow of the boat to keep it from becoming tangled in the bushes along the bank. It took only two or three weeks to make the trip from Illinois or Ohio to New Orleans, but three or four months were required for the return. The river boatman was a rough specimen of humanity, and often consoled himself for his hardships along the river by a wild carouse when he reached New Orleans and received his wages. The Spanish officials in the city got their idea of the western people from these boatmen, and it is not surprising, therefore, that any rumor of an invasion of Louisiana by the "Kentuckians," as they called all westerners, always filled them with alarm.

Flatboat

After the United States took over Louisiana this traffic between New Orleans and the Western Country steadily increased. A traveler who stopped in Natchez in 1808 counted eighty-three flatboats at that town at one time on their way down the river. In 1814, five hundred ninety-eight flatboats and three hundred twenty-one barges reached New Orleans, and a few years after that the number reached several thousand every year.

Nicholas Roosevelt.—It was not long after the United States gained the whole Mississipi Valley before a great improvement came in travel by the river. In 1807 Robert Fulton built the *Clermont*, which was the first successful steamboat and was put into operation on the Hudson. Robert R. Livingston, the former minister to France who had helped bring about the purchase of Louisiana, became a partner of Fulton in the steamship business. Fulton and Livingston sent Nicholas J. Roosevelt, the grandfather of President Roosevelt, out to Pittsburgh to see if steamboats could not be used on western rivers. Nicholas Roosevelt took a flatboat and started down the Ohio. As soon as he decided that a steamboat could be used he loaded his flatboat with coal and deposited it at various places, so that the boat which he was going to build might have plenty of fuel on its first trip.

First Mississippi Steamboat.—After reaching New Orleans Roosevelt went back to New York and told Fulton and Livingston that the Ohio and Mississippi could be navigated by steam, and they at once sent him back to Pittsburgh to build a boat. It was finished in 1811 and was named the *New Orleans*. Late in that year it started down the stream, with Roosevelt and his wife as passengers. At every town people lined the river banks to see the curious craft. Many of them shook their heads, and said that it might get down the river, but that it would never come back. The *New Orleans* was soon followed by two other boats, the *Comet* and the *Vesuvius*.

The doubters were partly right about these first boats. They did not have power enough to take them back against the swift currents of the Ohio, but they could easily navigate the lower Mississippi, and were used in trade in that section.

The man who made the first Mississippi River steamboat that could go anywhere it could float was Captain Henry M. Shreve. In his boat, the *Enterprise,* he made the first return trip as far up as Louisville and also made the first trip by steam up the Red River. The city of Shreveport was named in his honor.

Captain Shreve later designed a boat which needed only three feet of water to keep it afloat, and which was propelled by a wheel at the stern. This type proved well suited for the Mississippi and its shallow tributaries, and it is the kind still most frequently seen on these waters to-day. Shreve's first boat brought him into a lawsuit with Fulton and Livingston. The legislature of Louisiana had given them the sole right to navigate the waters of the state by steam, and when Shreve brought his *Enterprise* to New Orleans it was seized by their agents. Shreve claimed that the state legislature had no right to make such a grant to two individuals, and that the river was free and open to all. He carried the case to the Supreme Court of the United States, and it ruled that he was right. This was a very important decision. Steamboats would have increased very slowly on the river if only these two men had been allowed to operate them, and the progress of the state would thus have been greatly hindered. The coming of the steamboat to its rivers meant as much for Louisiana as the coming of sugar and cotton to its fields.

QUESTIONS

1. What were the chief methods of river travel in Bienville's time?
2. Describe the use of flatboats a hundred years ago.
3. What was the purpose of the keelboat?

4. Compare the time of the trip up the river with that down the stream.
5. Tell about the work of Nicholas Roosevelt.
6. What was the first steamboat to descend the river?
7. Tell about the work of Captain Shreve.

A Mississippi Stern-wheeler

XLI

THE LAFITTES OF BARATARIA

Just six weeks after Louisiana entered the Union as a state the United States declared war against Great Britain. For nearly two years all the fighting between the Americans and the British was done on the high seas and in the far North near the borders of Canada, and so the war had little effect on the daily lives of the Louisianians.

The Smugglers.—Governor Claiborne at this time appeared to be more interested in breaking up a gang of smugglers on the gulf coast, who were bringing valuable goods into the United States without paying duties at the custom-house, than he was in preparing for a possible British invasion. These smugglers had an interesting history. They carried on their work in Barataria Bay, where they had a safe refuge. Into this bay their light, swift-sailing vessels could go, and any heavy ships that might be in pursuit could not follow them. Here the smugglers made their quarters on the island of Grande Terre and carried on a profitable trade.

The men engaged in this trade not only secretly delivered their goods in New Orleans without paying any duty at the custom-house, but they got these goods by capturing merchant vessels of Spain and Great Britain. If they had done this without authority from any government they would have been pirates, but they had obtained papers from one of the countries of South America in revolt against Spain giving them the right to do this. Such papers are called letters of marque, and the vessels sailing under them are called privateers.

The Spanish colonies of South America at this time had declared their independence and were fighting Spain just as

the American colonies had fought Great Britain in order to gain their freedom. They therefore issued letters of marque against Spanish ships, and at the same time France, then at war with England, issued letters of marque against British ships.

Privateers.—The Baratarians with their letters of marque claimed a right to capture the ships of Great Britain and Spain, but they broke the law when they brought their captured cargoes into the United States, and they could sell such goods only by smuggling them into the country. If they had brought them to the custom-house to pay the duties on them the goods would have been seized by the American government.

Such goods cost the smugglers so little that they sold them very cheaply, and some of the best people in the city were regular buyers of the smuggled articles. You will remember that under the Spanish rule the governors very often allowed the colonists to break the trade laws, and the Louisianians at this time therefore did not look upon this as a serious offense.

Among those who were most active in smuggling goods into New Orleans were two brothers, Jean and Pierre Lafitte. They had come from the town of Bordeaux in France. In New Orleans they had a blacksmith shop, which served as a screen for their main business as agents of the privateers in the gulf. Pierre, the older of the two brothers, had served in the French navy, and he now helped direct the work of capturing vessels. Jean was no sailor, but he was a man of such great ability that the Baratarians finally chose him as their leader. On Grande Terre Island the privateers built houses in which to store their captured goods, erected a fort at the entrance to the bay to keep out hostile ships, and kept a fleet of swift vessels on the seas to prey on the commerce of England and Spain. A force of about five hundred men had gathered under the lead of the Lafittes, and among them were many desperate fellows. Captured

goods were sent nearly every day up Bayou Lafourche under a strong guard and sold to merchants and planters along the way.

Arrest of the Leaders.—While war was going on between the United States and Great Britain Governor Claiborne undertook to break up this unlawful trade and to put an end to the capture of vessels of a friendly nation. He issued a proclamation denouncing the privateers as "bandits" and ordering them to break up. To this, of course, they paid no attention. Soon after this the Lafitte brothers were arrested, but they went unpunished. Several months later some revenue officers seized some of the smuggled goods near New Orleans, but the smugglers under the orders of Jean Lafitte fired on the officers and recaptured the goods in broad daylight.

Claiborne then offered a reward of five hundred dollars for the arrest of Jean Lafitte, and the latter in return offered a reward thirty times as great for Claiborne's head. The governor also urged the legislature to provide funds for breaking up the smuggling settlement at Barataria, but nothing was done. The Lafittes had a number of other adventures with the authorities, and finally Pierre was captured and placed in jail in New Orleans.

British Schemes.—While these things were going on the British were planning to capture New Orleans, which was almost undefended. They sent Colonel Nicholls from Bermuda with two war-ships to cruise along the Florida coast and find guides and pilots to help bring a large fleet of British ships into the lakes behind New Orleans for an attack on the city. Nicholls landed at Pensacola, then a Spanish town, and made this his headquarters, although he had no right to do so. The British gained the aid of the Creek Indians in Florida, and then Colonel Nicholls heard of the smugglers of Barataria, and of the troubles they had been having with the Federal government, and he naturally sup-

posed that they would be ready to aid him in an attack against the United States.

So one morning in the fall of 1814 an armed British vessel appeared off Grande Terre. A boat load of islanders rowed out toward it, and it was met by a boat from the British ship. An officer asked to see "Mr. Lafitte," and he and his men were taken ashore. There the officer gave Jean Lafitte a package of papers. One of the papers offered Lafitte the rank of captain in the British navy and a reward of thirty thousand dollars for aid to the British in their campaign on the gulf. Another paper contained an order for the destruction of the Baratarians' stronghold in return for the damage they had done to British ships. In other words, Lafitte was given the choice of serving the British and being handsomely rewarded or of running the risk of destruction. If he were the bad character or the pirate that some people have declared him to be there is no doubt as to the course he would have taken. But, like all Frenchmen of that time, he looked upon the British as enemies, and he was also faithful to his adopted country in spite of the fact that he had constantly violated the laws against smuggling.

The British Tricked.—He pretended, then, to be interested in the British offer and asked for two weeks in which to consider the matter and to set his affairs in order. As soon as the British officer had left, Lafitte sat down and wrote to his friend Jean Blanque, a member of the legislature, telling him of the British plans to attack New Orleans and enclosing all the papers the British officer had given him as proof. In return for this he asked as a favor that something be done for his brother Pierre, then in prison.

Attack on Barataria.—Blanque laid the letter before Governor Claiborne, and soon afterward Pierre escaped, or was allowed to escape, and joined his brother at Grande Terre. The two brothers then wrote to Claiborne offering the services of their men against the British in return for

a pardon. Claiborne was ready to accept this offer, but the United States government had already equipped a strong expedition at New Orleans to break up the smugglers' establishment, and its leaders, Commodore Patterson and Colonel Ross, were unwilling to show the Lafittes any favors. Accordingly, within two weeks after Jean Lafitte's first letter, a sudden attack was made on Grande Terre, and the settlement was wiped out, though most of the Baratarians, including their two leaders, escaped. The Lafitte brothers took refuge among friends on the German Coast, and, as we shall see, they were later to give full proof of their patriotism and to win their country's pardon for their past lawbreaking.

QUESTIONS

1. Were the Baratarians pirates?
2. What is a privateer?
3. Who were Jean and Pierre Lafitte?
4. In what sort of trade were they engaged?
5. Why was it unlawful?
6. What was Governor Claiborne's attitude toward the Baratarians?
7. Describe the efforts of the British to bribe the Baratarians.
8. What was the result?
9. What became of the smugglers' stronghold?

XLII

THE BRITISH INVASION

We have seen that Napoleon sold Louisiana to the United States because he was about to go to war with England and was afraid that that country would take it from him. In 1814 the English and their allies overthrew Napoleon, and this left England free to use her large and well-trained armies against the United States, with which she was still fighting.

The war had been going badly with the United States. In the summer of 1814 the British had captured the city of Washington and had burned the capitol. They next planned an invasion of the Mississippi Valley, which they hoped to seize and unite with Canada. We have already seen how an expedition had been sent to Florida to arouse the Creek Indians against the United States, and how Colonel Nicholls had also tried to win over the Baratarians. Nicholls also issued a proclamation to the French and Spanish inhabitants of Louisiana urging them to rise and expel the Americans. He had evidently heard that the Creoles were dissatisfied with their new government.

General Jackson's Arrival.—General Andrew Jackson had been put in charge of the defense of the gulf, but he made Mobile his headquarters and spent the summer fighting the Creeks in Alabama. The papers from the British officer, which Jean Lafitte had sent up to New Orleans, gave the first information to Governor Claiborne that the city was in danger of attack. This news was sent to General Jackson, but he did not go to the defense of New Orleans till early in December. In the meantime a fleet of fifty ships carrying ten thousand of Great Britain's finest troops, veterans of the war against Napoleon, had sailed from

Jamaica. The British forces were under the command of two able leaders, Generals Pakenham and Gibbs.

Within a week after Jackson reached New Orleans the British expedition had anchored off the coast of Louisiana, and Jackson needed every man who could bear arms for the defense of the city. Jean Lafitte came out of his place of hiding and offered his services. Jackson in one of his proclamations had referred to the Baratarians as "bandits," and he was now pleased to see that he had been wrong. Among Lafitte's men were many trained to handle heavy cannon, and they were all used to fighting and danger. Claiborne called on them to join the army, and he and Jackson both promised to urge the president to pardon them. Jackson put them in posts of trust and danger, and they were among the best of his soldiers.

Photo from Underwood & Underwood

The Equestrian Statue of General Jackson in New Orleans

Landing of the British.—The British decided that to attack New Orleans by taking their ships up the river against its strong current was impossible, and so they advanced against the city through Lake Borgne. There were a few small gunboats on the lake, but these were soon overpowered, and the troops were landed on a desolate island near the mouth of the Pearl River, where they suffered greatly from sickness and from the cold winter rains. They did not know how to find their way through the low, flat and watery country, but finally they learned from some poor Spanish fishermen that there were no American

soldiers stationed along Bayou Bienvenue, and that small boats or barges could go up this stream to a canal which would lead them to a plantation right on the Mississippi River, about seven miles below New Orleans. Two British officers disguised themselves as fishermen and went up the bayou and canal till they reached the river. On their way they met with some negroes, from whom they learned more about the country. On their return they reported that the road to the city in this direction was fairly easy.

On December twenty-second sixteen hundred men began poling their way up Bayou Bienvenue and through the Villeré Canal to the plantation of General Villeré, which lay along the river. On their way they captured a few Americans who had been sent out as pickets. The prisoners had agreed beforehand to tell the British that Jackson had an army of sixteen thousand men, and as they all told the same story and stuck to it the enemy was greatly deceived as to the strength of the troops at New Orleans.

Major Villeré's Adventure.—After the British landed at the plantation the Villeré house was quickly surrounded, and Major Villeré, a son of the general, and his brother were made prisoners. They were taken completely by surprise, as they were sitting on the veranda quietly smoking when they saw the soldiers entering the yard from behind a grove of orange trees. Major Villeré determined to make a desperate effort to escape and carry the news to General Jackson. At a favorable moment he broke from his guards and leaping from a window made his way to a thick wood, escaping the shots of the pursuing soldiers. He climbed into the thick, moss-covered branches of a live oak, but a faithful dog had followed him to the foot of the tree. Knowing that the animal's presence there would reveal his hiding place he leaped down quickly, killed the poor creature, and hid the body in the bushes.

He had barely time to hide in the tree again before the soldiers came searching through the woods, ramming their

bayonets into the thickets but failing to look up into the trees. When they had gone Major Villeré made his way to Colonel de la Ronde, a neighboring planter, and the two at once crossed the river, got horses, and rode at full speed up the west bank to New Orleans, to warn General Jackson that the British were coming.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did the British decide to invade the Mississippi Valley?
2. Did they count on help from any people in that region? Why?
3. How did the Americans first learn of the British plans?
4. Did the Baratarians help the British as the latter had expected?
5. How did the British troops enter Louisiana?
6. What route did they follow to reach New Orleans?
7. How near did they approach to New Orleans before their presence was known?
8. How did General Jackson learn of their coming?

Jackson's Headquarters

XLIII

THE BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS

General Jackson was a man of quick action, and as soon as he learned that the British were within a few miles of the city he determined to attack them before they had time to receive reinforcements or erect fortifications. He at once assembled his troops, numbering about two thousand, and put them in march down the river. At the same time the armed schooner *Carolina* was sent down the Mississippi under Commodore Patterson. It anchored after dark opposite the point where the British camp-fires were burning, and at about half past seven o'clock it opened a heavy fire.

Battle of December 23.—Soon afterward Jackson's troops arrived and joined the attack. The British were taken by surprise, and the suddenness and vigor with which Jackson fell upon them made them think that his forces were really much stronger than they were. The British and Americans fought hand to hand in the darkness, but a heavy fog came up and both sides withdrew. In this combat the British lost over three hundred men, and the Americans over two hundred.

There were about twice as many British as American troops before New Orleans, and if the enemy had known this they would have pushed on and taken the city. But this battle gave them such a severe shaking that they decided to wait for more troops and for their artillery before attempting a further advance.

Jackson in the meantime drew his men back behind the Rodriguez Canal, along which he threw up a line of earthworks. Just below his line he cut the levee, hoping that the river, which was beginning its January rise, would

overflow into the space between his line and the British camp. The Mississippi was not high enough, however, to flood the country and only caused a rise in the bayous, which made it easier for the British to bring up their troops and heavy guns.

The Americans at this time were also receiving reinforcements, and these continued to come in until Jackson had an army of four thousand men. Part of these, however, were raw recruits who had never seen any fighting, whereas the British troops were the very pick of the army. The British also strengthened their position. Their forces had been increased to eight thousand men. Two days after the fight with the Americans Sir Edward Pakenham, one of the ablest generals in the British army, arrived and took command.

The American line ran from the river to the swamp, a distance of about a mile. In front of the earthworks there was a canal filled with water, and on the embankment Jackson placed thirteen pieces of artillery. Across the Mississippi he had also stationed a thousand men under General Morgan with heavy guns to fire on the British flank and to prevent the enemy from crossing the river and pushing up to New Orleans along the west bank.

Jackson had in his army nearly every kind of fighter that one can imagine. There were soldiers from the regular army, militia men in various sorts of gaudy uniforms, mulattoes from Santo Domingo, backwoodsmen from Mississippi, Kentucky and Tennessee, who were deadly shots with the rifle, free negroes, a hundred Indians in their war paint, some sailors and marines, and a number of Barataria ns under Lafitte.

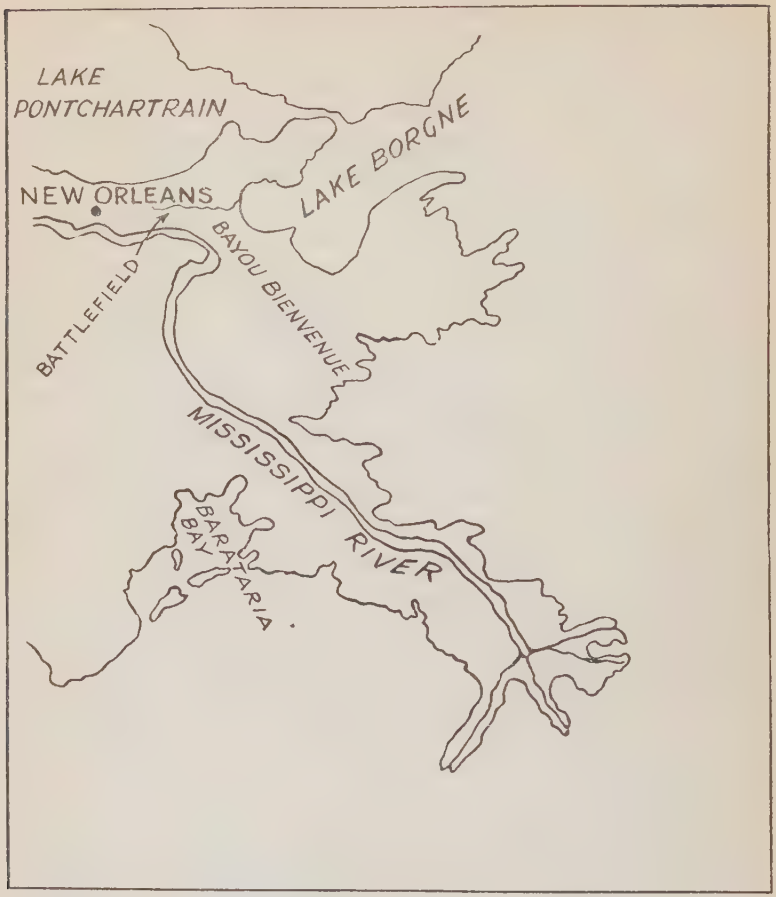
Jackson was unwilling to risk fighting with his raw recruits outside his breastworks, and he therefore decided to wait for the enemy to attack. The British, after great labor, had brought up some heavy guns from their warships in the gulf and had planted a battery on the levee

and others along a line of earthworks which they had thrown up at night about a quarter of a mile in front of the American position. The guns on the levee opened fire on the armed schooners *Carolina* and *Louisiana*, which had been keeping up a continuous fire on the British position and had given the enemy no rest. The *Carolina* took fire and blew up, but the *Louisiana* was taken safely beyond the range of the guns.

New Year's Day, 1815.—A few days later, on New Year's Day, 1815, the British turned all their heavy artillery on the American position. Part of Jackson's defenses consisted of a line of cotton bales. These quickly caught fire and had to be thrown into the canal. But the American batteries were so well directed by the crew of the *Carolina* and the Baratarians, Dominique You and Captain Beluche, that they quickly destroyed the British earthworks and silenced their guns. The enemy had placed a large number of hogsheads of sugar along their earthworks, and these had proved as useless as Jackson's cotton bales.

After this encounter Jackson saw that his best means of defense against the British artillery was an embankment of earth. He therefore built a high board fence and packed it behind with a dirt wall, which in some places was nearly twenty feet thick. He also flooded the canal in front of the earthworks.

The British at the same time were busy with their preparations. They cut the Villeré Canal through to the river, a distance of two miles, so that they could float their barges loaded with soldiers across the Mississippi. It was their plan to send across a strong force at night under Colonel Thornton, and after surprising the troops under General Morgan to move up the river a few miles and recross the stream, thus putting themselves between the Americans and the city, and practically surrounding Jackson's army. At the same time the British forces on the east bank were to make a strong attack on



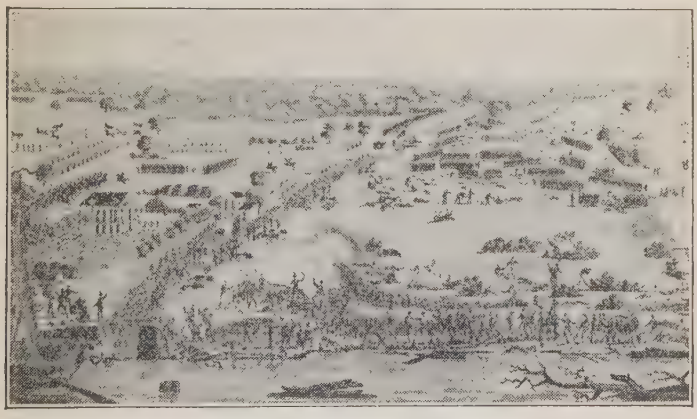
Where the British Operated in Louisiana

Jackson, so as to draw his attention away from what was going on across the river.

January 8, 1815.—But when the attack took place on January 8, these plans all went wrong. The banks of the new canal which the British had cut caved in, and they succeeded in taking only a part of their barges into the river. Just about half the soldiers therefore that it was

planned to take across the stream could be carried over. Moreover, the current was so strong that the barges were carried a long distance below the point where the troops were expected to land, and it was daylight before Colonel Thornton was ready to attack.

As soon as he had driven back the Americans on the west bank Thornton was to let Pakenham know of it by sending up a rocket. The main body of British troops meanwhile had moved close to the American earthworks under the cover of darkness, and there they waited a long time for



The Battle of New Orleans
Notice in the background the British soldiers advancing in solid ranks

Thornton's signal, but it never came. Finally daylight came, and Pakenham could delay no longer. He ordered his men to advance to the attack, and then it was found that the regiment which was to bring up ladders to scale Jackson's board wall had come without them. This halted the advance for a short time, while the American artillery poured a terrific fire on the enemy's line.

The British could not stand still and be shot down, and so they were ordered to go forward without the ladders. As they came on Jackson shouted to his backwoods rifle-

men, "Give it to them, boys! Let us finish the job to-day." The Kentuckians and Tennesseeans poured volley after volley into the British ranks, and sharpshooters picked off the officers. Now at last came the men with the ladders; they rushed forward bravely under a deadly fire, floundered through the muddy water in the canal, set the ladders against the embankment and tried to climb over. One gallant officer, Major Rennie, mounted the breastworks, but immediately fell within the American lines, pierced with many bullets. General Pakenham was wounded and his horse was shot from under him, but he mounted another and led the advance, only to fall mortally wounded a few minutes later. The two other generals on the field, Gibbs and Keane, were also wounded and taken to the rear. Major Wilkinson now took command and led his men in one more charge on the breastworks, but he, too, fell mortally wounded within the American lines. General Lambert now came up with reserves, but it was too late; the British had been completely routed, and he could only protect their retreat.

An American Victory.—By eight o'clock in the morning the firing ceased. The battle had been fought and won. The British lost over two thousand killed, wounded and missing, while the Americans lost only seventy-one. Most of the American losses took place across the river, where the British under Thornton had forced Morgan to retreat. In the main battle on the east bank only seven Americans were killed and six wounded.

For ten days the British remained in camp, while the American guns kept on shelling them. On the night of January eighteenth they stole away in the darkness, leaving their camp-fires burning and dummies posted as sentinels. The Americans did not know that the enemy had left until an officer watching a sentinel through his glasses the next morning saw crows flying very close to him and so discovered the trick.

Jackson and his men had won a great victory, but it had

no effect whatever on the outcome of the war. A treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States had been signed across the seas on December twenty-fourth, the day after the first fight between Jackson and the British, and two weeks before the big battle of January eighth. If there had been ocean telegraphs or fast steamships in those days this great loss of life would have been prevented.

Nevertheless, the victory at New Orleans helped to offset some of the disastrous defeats which the Americans had suffered elsewhere. It also showed the American people that the Creoles, though only recently made citizens of the United States, were just as ready to fight for the Stars and Stripes as the people of any other state, and that the alarm of some of the New England politicians when Louisiana was admitted to the Union was altogether baseless.

QUESTIONS

1. What did Jackson do on hearing that the British were in Louisiana?
2. Describe the battle of December twenty-third.
3. What were its results?
4. Tell about Jackson's preparations for another fight.
5. What different sorts of troops made up his army?
6. Describe the British plans for attack on January eighth.
7. How did these plans go wrong?
8. Give the main facts about the battle.
9. Describe the final withdrawal of the British.
10. Why did the battle of New Orleans have no effect on the outcome of the war?

XLIV

GROWTH OF THE STATE

Soon after the war Louisiana began to enjoy a degree of prosperity such as it had never known before. During the conflict with England trade with foreign countries practically ceased, but with the coming of peace ships from all parts of the world again crowded the port of New Orleans, and the levee was piled high with cotton, sugar, flour and tobacco for export.

The city increased rapidly in size and importance. It had already spread out beyond its early boundaries. The old wooden palisade that surrounded the city in the Spanish days had been torn down, and the deep ditch that ran along it had been filled up. By 1840 New Orleans had become the fourth largest city in the United States.

Improvement in Cane Growing.—The rest of the state was also growing. In 1820 the population of Louisiana was nearly double what it had been when it was admitted to the Union eight years before. Agriculture continued to be the leading industry, and the main crops were sugar and cotton.

For some time after sugar-making had become an important industry the cane-growers had much trouble in protecting their cane against the cold before it was ripe enough for grinding.

In 1817 Jean Coiron, a Louisiana planter, while on a visit to Savannah noticed some purple-striped, or ribbon, cane which had come from far-off Java. He took a few stalks back with him and planted them, and this variety was found to resist the cold much better than the cane he had previously grown. Coiron was so pleased with his discovery that he obtained a shipload of the "ribbon cane" for his plantation, and it soon spread from there all over the state.

Coiron was also the first to use a steam engine instead of horse power to grind his cane. This was in 1822. Eight years later the "open kettle" method of making sugar gave way to the "vacuum pan" process, which produced more and better sugar from a given quantity of cane and at a lower cost. With these improvements the sugar industry in Louisiana greatly increased in importance. In 1827 there were only about three hundred sugar plantations in the

Dock Scene, New Orleans

state; but by 1849 the number had grown to one thousand five hundred.

For a long time the plantations clung close to the banks of the river. The planters wished to be in reach of the steamboats, so that they could easily ship their sugar, molasses and cotton to the New Orleans market and also get there the supplies needed for their plantations. Steamboats from St. Louis and other cities of the upper Mississippi and the

Ohio also brought large quantities of flour and pork for the planters and country merchants along the lower river.

Above Baton Rouge the chief crop was cotton, because the cane did not ripen well so far north. When Louisiana was admitted into the Union there were very few people living north of the Red River, and even twenty years later there were hardly two thousand people in all the region between the Red and Ouachita Rivers. There are many towns in this district to-day that contain more people than were to be found in this whole region in 1830.

As the lands in the northern part of the state were thrown open for settlement the population there rapidly increased, with most of the people engaged in raising cotton.

Plantation System.—Before Étienne de Boré introduced the sugar industry into Louisiana there were many small, "one-horse" farms along the Mississippi, but the raising of cane and cotton caused the little farms to give way slowly to large plantations. To raise a crop along the river required more work and money than small farmers could supply. Drainage ditches had to be dug and kept open. Levees had to be kept up in front largely at the planter's expense, and smaller levees had to be built in the rear to keep out the backwater from the swamps. These things could not be done by the small farmer. Likewise he did not have the money needed to build sugar mills and cotton gins, or to obtain the slaves needed for cultivating many acres. So he sold out and moved away from the river to the prairie lands to the west or the higher lands to the north, where he could grow a crop more cheaply, while the rich river lands came into the hands of the well-to-do planters, who could farm them to the best advantage.

New Constitution.—We have seen that the state constitution adopted in 1812 did not give the people much voice in their government. In 1845 a new constitution was adopted, which was in many ways an improvement over the first one. The governor was no longer required to possess a certain

amount of property, and every white male citizen of the United States who had lived in the state two years got the right to vote. The new constitution also provided for a system of free public schools and for a state University and a Seminary of Learning.

In 1846 the legislature authorized the removal of the capital from New Orleans to Baton Rouge. The people of Baton Rouge gave the land for a building, and the legislature held its first meeting there in 1850. The citizens of the new capital planned a big celebration, but a few days before the event the town was swept by a fire that destroyed about a fifth of the buildings, and the money for the festivities was turned over to the sufferers from the disaster.

Early Floods.—In spite of the great progress of the state before 1860, there were two great foes with which its people had to struggle. These were floods and fever. The levees along the Mississippi in some places were poorly built and often gave way. In the period of French and Spanish rule the waters of the river frequently came up into New Orleans, and after it became an American city it was badly flooded a number of times before the Civil War. The worst flood came in 1849, when the levee broke at Sauvé's plantation, seventeen miles above the city. The waters swept down into New Orleans, making bayous out of many of its streets and driving nearly two thousand families out of their homes.

Much more serious than the floods were the visits of yellow fever. This was brought to New Orleans nearly every year before 1860 by ships from the West Indies and South America, and it usually spread along the gulf coast and up into the state and into neighboring states. The worst epidemic occurred in 1853, when nearly eleven thousand persons died from it in Louisiana and about twice as many more had it. We now know that the yellow fever is spread by a certain kind of mosquito, but this was not found out till nearly fifty years after the great epidemic

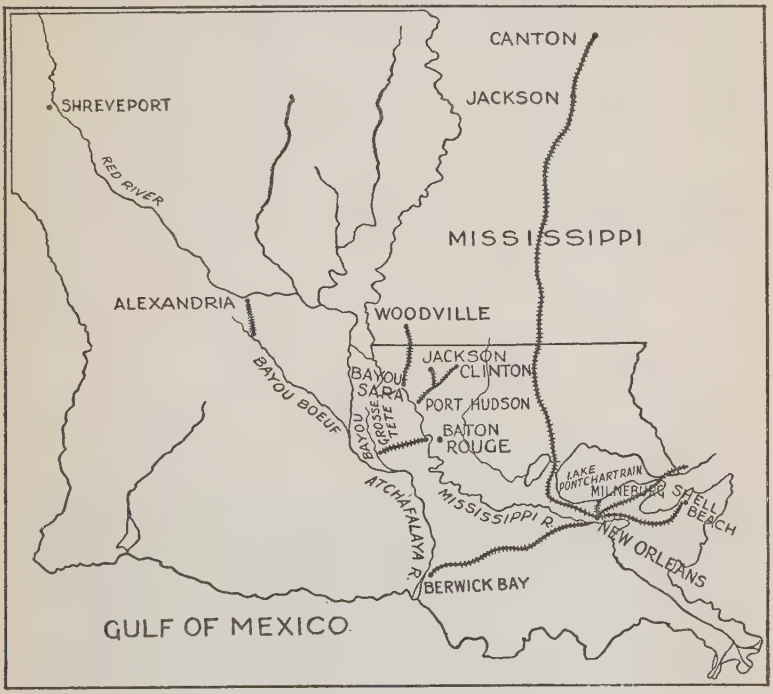
of 1853. It had been observed, however, that the disease was worst in low, damp places, or where there were ditches and stagnant water. This led to efforts to clean up and drain such places, and as a result there were fewer mosquitoes and less fever. After 1853 ships coming from tropical countries were also held in quarantine until it was seen that they had no fever aboard. There were some epidemics in later years, but none that compared with the one in that year.

Early Railroads.—Owing to its many streams which steamboats could navigate, Louisiana did not need the railroads so much as many other states in which most of the traveling had to be done by land. The first railways built in the state were meant only to link together different waterways, or else connect some inland town with a river. As a result, the early lines were short and not united into great systems such as we find in all parts of the country to-day.

One of the early roads built in the state connected New Orleans with Lake Pontchartrain. The first locomotive ran on its tracks in 1832. This road connected with steamers on the lake that ran to Mobile and enabled travelers between that city and New Orleans to avoid the tedious journey of ninety miles up and down the Mississippi. Another early road ran from Port Hudson on the river as far west as Clinton, and another ran from the river at Bayou Sara up through the hills to Woodville, Mississippi. Still another connected the Mississippi River at Port Allen, opposite Baton Rouge, with Bayou Grosse-Tête, and another ran from Alexandria to Bayou Boeuf. The two roads last mentioned have long ago disappeared. Two more important lines were started after 1850. One of these, known as the New Orleans, Opelousas, and Great Western, was running by 1855 as far west as Berwick Bay, and was the first link in the present Southern Pacific line which connects New Orleans with San Francisco and the Pacific coast. The other, known as the New Orleans, Jackson and Great Northern,

ran north about two hundred miles by 1857, and was the first southern link in the main line of the Illinois Central, which connects New Orleans with Chicago and the Great Lakes.

The railroads in all parts of the country at this time were very poor affairs, compared with those of to-day. The lines



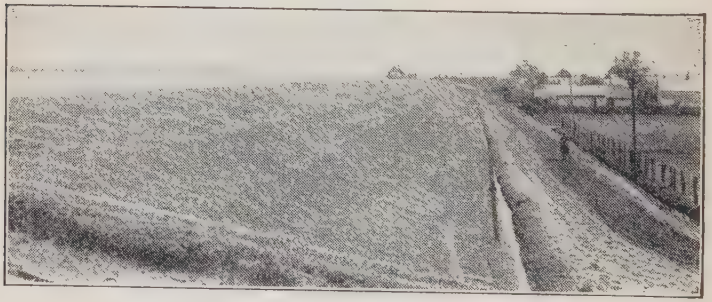
Railways in Louisiana before the Civil War

were short, and the traveler had to make many changes of cars if he went very far. Travel was slow and uncomfortable, and delays and wrecks were frequent. For these reasons people who had to travel much preferred the more comfortable steamboat when they had a choice of going either by rail or by river. In this period, therefore, there

were many more steamboats on the Mississippi and its tributaries than one can find there to-day, and many of them were fitted out in luxury.

QUESTIONS

1. Describe the growth of New Orleans after the war of 1812-14.
2. What improvements in growing cane and manufacturing sugar were made in this period?
3. Why did the early plantations cling close to the river?
4. Why did the small farmers gradually leave the rich river lands?
5. Show how big plantations grew best along the rivers.
6. What important changes were made in the state by the Constitution of 1845?
7. What two things interfered with the early progress of the state?
8. Tell about the early fever epidemics.
9. Describe the early railroads in Louisiana.



Levee and Plantation on Lower Mississippi

XLV

LOUISIANA'S PRESIDENT

In 1848 a citizen of Louisiana was chosen President of the United States. This was General Zachary Taylor, known to his soldiers as "Old Rough and Ready." In order that we may see how this came about we must know something concerning the admission of the state of Texas into the Union and the war with Mexico that grew out of this act.

When Louisiana was admitted to the Union it had the Spanish province of Texas as a western neighbor. Texas was then part of Mexico and Mexico belonged to Spain. In 1821 Mexico gained its independence of Spain and became a republic, with a government copied after that of the United States. Texas formed part of this republic. It was a vast region, with very few inhabitants. The Mexican government at first was anxious to have people come and settle there, and it made large grants of land to the settlers. This caused a large number of Americans to cross the border and take up Texas lands. The American settlers, however, did not like the idea of being governed by Spanish-speaking officials in distant Mexico City, and it was not long before they fell to quarreling and then to fighting with the Mexican authorities. The result was a revolution which ended with the Americans driving out the Mexicans and setting up the independent Republic of Texas.

Annexation of Texas.—The next step was for Texas to seek annexation to the United States, and in 1845 it was admitted into the Union as a state. The Mexican government by this time had become very unfriendly to the United States because many Americans had aided the Texans in their revolution. When the Mexican minister at Washington learned that Texas was to be admitted into the Union

he announced that his government would look upon this as a declaration of war against his country, because it still claimed Texas and refused to admit its independence. After Congress had voted to admit Texas into the Union General Zachary Taylor, who was in command of the troops in the Southwest and had his headquarters at Baton Rouge, was ordered to proceed with his forces into Texas and to protect it from a Mexican invasion.

A Farmer and Soldier.—General Taylor had been in the army nearly forty years. His first service with troops was at New Orleans under General Wilkinson at the time when Aaron Burr created so much excitement there. After that he fought against the Indians in the Northwest under General William Henry Harrison. In 1827-8 Taylor was stationed at the army post at Baton Rouge, and in 1840 he was sent there again. This time he did not live at the army post, but bought a small cottage on the banks of the Mississippi that had been the residence of the Spanish commandant thirty years befor and this was his home till he was called to the White House. He also bought a plantation up the river, and was now both a farmer and a soldier.

After receiving orders to take his troops into Texas, General Taylor made his camp at Corpus Christi and later was ordered to the Rio Grande, which forms the boundary between Texas and Mexico. The Mexican commander in that district, General Ampudia, notified Taylor that the American troops were in territory claimed by Mexico, and he ordered them to withdraw beyond the Neuces River. To this Taylor paid no attention, and a few days later a large force of Mexicans crossed the Rio Grande, and attacked a party of American soldiers from ambush, killing and wounding a number of them. Because Mexico had invaded American territory and shed American blood on American soil, the United States went to war with that country.

Battle of Monterey.—General Taylor began the campaign by defeating the Mexicans at Palo Alto and Resaca de

Palma; then he marched into Mexico and captured Monterey. General Santa Ana, with an army of twenty thousand men, next marched against Taylor, who had only five thousand. With his greater numbers Santa Ana almost surrounded Taylor's army, but the Americans fought fiercely and drove the enemy's larger forces back in utter confusion. With this brilliant victory General Taylor's part in the war came practically to an end, and the fighting shifted farther south, where General Winfield Scott led an expedition that brought the war to its end by the capture of Mexico City.

Louisiana felt a keen interest in this war, because it meant that she was to have an American rather than a Mexican state as a neighbor. When General Taylor took his small army to Corpus Christi he did not have enough artillery and a call was made for volunteer gunners until regular army artillery could arrive. New Orleans sent two batteries to Taylor's assistance. When war was declared there was another call for volunteers. Several thousand Louisianians enlisted, and the Louisiana Legion was organized. The legislature voted a large sum of money to equip the troops which the state sent to the border. Another force was raised later and served under General Scott during his campaign against Mexico City.

It was in the Mexican War also that Major P. G. T. Beauregard, later a general in the Civil War, won his first fame as a soldier. Another Louisiana officer, who distinguished himself at Monterey and Buena Vista, was Captain Braxton Bragg; he also was to become a general in the Civil War. Still another officer who won special distinction under Taylor was Colonel Jefferson Davis, who commanded a regiment of Mississippi troops. Davis was Taylor's son-in-law. Many years before this he had married Taylor's daughter without her father's consent, and for some time thereafter the two men were on unfriendly terms, but the gallant action of Colonel Davis at Monterey and Buena Vista won

the old general's heart, and in his reports to Washington he praised Davis highly for his bravery. As we shall see later, Colonel Davis was to play a leading part in the Civil War.

With the end of his Mexican campaign General Taylor returned to his home in Baton Rouge, but he was no longer allowed to live in quiet retirement. When the Mississippi steamboats stopped at Baton Rouge they tied up only a short distance from his dwelling, and while they were taking on or discharging their cargo their passengers who had come from far and near would often walk up to his house in a body to shake hands with the hero of the war. He had a constant stream of visitors day and night, but his great popularity in no way turned his head. He still remained the simple, straightforward American that he had always been, really more like a farmer than a soldier. He now owned three hundred slaves, and his wife wished that they could spend the rest of their days quietly on their plantation, but the people would not have it so.

General Zachary Taylor

Elected President.—The Whig party at its convention in Philadelphia in 1848 nominated him for president, and in November he was triumphantly elected. There were many men in the Whig party who feared that General Taylor was not the sort of man that the country needed in the White House. Because he was careless about his clothes and somewhat rude in his speech and manners they thought him ignorant and lacking in ability. But Taylor had not been president long before they discovered their mistake. They found him a man of common sense, whom the politicians could not control. Because he had a mind of his own he

was disliked by some of the leaders of his party who had expected to bend him to their way of thinking. The country at this time was badly divided on the slavery question, and many men in both the North and the South feared that the quarrel was going to break up the Union. General Taylor was a slave-owner but a strong Union man.

The slavery and anti-slavery leaders in Congress finally patched up an agreement that saved the Union for ten more years, but the president was dead before this plan was worked out. On the Fourth of July, 1850, he was taken violently ill a few hours after he had laid the corner-stone of the Washington monument at the capital, and five days later the veteran soldier passed away, while the storm in Congress over the slavery question was still at its height.

QUESTIONS

1. Show how the annexation of Texas led to the Mexican War.
2. Sketch the leading events in General Taylor's career before the war.
3. Tell about the battle of Monterey.
4. Give some facts about Louisiana's part in the war.
5. Name two Louisiana officers who gained distinction in this war.
6. Tell about Colonel Jefferson Davis and General Taylor.
7. Describe Taylor's life at Baton Rouge after the war ended.
8. Tell about his nomination and election as president.
9. What sort of president did Taylor make?
10. What was the big question before the country at this time?
11. Tell about the death of President Taylor.

XLVI

EVENTS LEADING TO SECESSION

We have already seen how Louisiana increased in wealth and population in the years following its admission into the Union. At this time the other states were growing and prospering too, but they were not all doing this in the same way. The Southern States depended for their wealth on their cotton, cane, tobacco and rice plantations. In the North there were no great plantations like those along the lower Mississippi, but there were many small farms devoted chiefly to raising grain and feed. In the North, too, there were many thriving cities, with a constantly increasing number of factories.

The Northern States had once had slavery, but they did not find it profitable. Slaves did not make good factory laborers, and the cold climate did not suit the negro. In the South, on the other hand, the planter would have been helpless in making a crop without the labor of his negro slaves. With the growth of southern plantations the number of slaves increased, while slavery in the North was dying out, and many states had abolished it entirely.

Drifting Apart.—As time went on, then, the North and the South became more and more unlike. The southern planters grew the cotton with slave labor and the northern manufacturers made it into cloth with free labor. In the North, too, a group of people, known as abolitionists, began to make speeches, write books and pamphlets, and publish newspapers urging that slavery should be abolished. Some of them became very active in aiding slaves in the border states of Tennessee, Kentucky and Virginia to escape into the free states, and at times the abolitionist leaders were suspected of trying to stir up a revolt among the slaves against their masters.

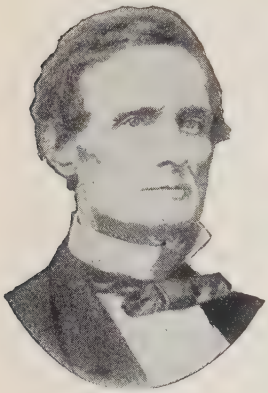
These things made the southern people feel bitter toward the North. They believed that it would have been better to have free labor, but it was not to be had, and they dreaded the idea of turning loose several millions of black people who were not long removed from Africa, and who as yet were only partly civilized. Louisiana, for most of the time before 1860, had more black people living in it than whites, and the latter felt that if they lost control over the negroes by doing away with slavery their lives and their civilization would be in danger.

In order to prevent the anti-slavery people from getting control of the government, the southern leaders in Congress tried to keep the number of slave states in the Union equal to that of the free states. When new states were admitted to the Union they generally came in pairs, one slave and the other free. An imaginary line had also been run across the country at 36° 30′, and it was agreed that all the territory north of this line should be free, while that south of the line might have slavery.

Union in Danger.—For a time this arrangement seemed to work very well, but after the Mexican War it appeared that the interests of the South would be endangered if it were continued. The population in the territory north of the imaginary line was increasing more rapidly than that south of the line, and it was evident that the free states before very long would outnumber the slave states.

This would break up the nice balance between the North and the South, and in 1850 the northern and southern leaders worked out a new plan. The imaginary line between free and slave territory was wiped out, and it was agreed that whenever a new state was to be admitted into the Union its people should decide for themselves whether or not they wanted slavery. Instead of settling the question this plan only increased the ill-feeling between the South and the North. This became evident when the new state of Kansas sought admission into the Union. There was a

bitter fight within its borders between the friends and foes of slavery. People in the other states took a hand in the fight, sending men and arms to the scene of the conflict. This widened the breach between the two sections of the country, and both the slavery and anti-slavery leaders began to talk about the "irrepressible conflict." In the North a new party, pledged to prevent the further spread of slavery in any territory, came into existence. This was the Republican party, and in 1860 it elected Abraham Lincoln president.



Jefferson Davis

The leaders in the South believed that the prohibition of slavery in the territories violated the rights of the Southern States that were guaranteed to them by the Constitution. They also believed that a violation of such rights freed them from all obligations to remain longer in the Union, and that any slave state therefore had a right to withdraw, or secede, if it saw fit. Such views at one time were also prevalent in the North, as we have seen from the speech of Josiah Quincy, of Massachusetts, when Louisiana was admitted to the Union.

Secession.—South Carolina was the first state to act according to this principle and secede, and other slave states soon followed its lead. The news that South Carolina had left the Union caused Governor Moore of Louisiana to call the legislature in special session, and it in turn called on the people to choose a convention to decide what course their state should take. At this time the citizens were nearly equally divided on the question of following the lead of South Carolina or of staying in the Union. As other Southern States began to secede the leaders in Louisiana who had opposed secession saw that the only course for

their state was to cast its lot with those that had already withdrawn.

The convention met in Baton Rouge on January 23, 1861, and four days later it declared the union of Louisiana with the other states at an end. By this act the convention meant to set up Louisiana as an independent nation, somewhat like Holland and Switzerland of to-day. A new flag of yellow, red, white and blue was raised in the place of the Stars and Stripes, and it was kept flying over the State House for six weeks. Louisiana then joined the new union known as the Confederate States of America, and the state flag was replaced by the Stars and Bars of the Confederacy. Louisiana had now taken its stand. There was no turning back. The long dispute over the right of a state to leave the Union was now to be settled by an armed conflict.

QUESTIONS

1. Show how the Northern and Southern States had begun to differ.
2. How did these differences lead to ill feeling?
3. What plan had been followed to prevent trouble?
4. What new plan took its place?
5. Did it work?
6. What policy did the Republican party favor concerning slavery?
7. On what grounds did the Southern States base their right to secede?
8. Had this view ever been expressed in the North?
9. Name the steps taken by Louisiana leading to secession.
10. Under how many flags was Louisiana in 1861? Compare this with 1803.

XLVII

LOUISIANA INVADED

As soon as Louisiana seceded Governor Moore called out the militia, and took over the military posts in the state, including Forts Jackson and St. Philip below New Orleans and the garrison at Baton Rouge. In the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, the Federal officer in charge of Fort Sumter refused to turn over the post at the demand of the Confederate authorities. When the Federal government attempted to send him supplies General Beauregard, a Louisianian, who commanded the Confederate troops at Charleston, opened fire on Fort Sumter and forced it to surrender. This marked the beginning of the war.

Louisiana's Service.—The people of Louisiana loyally supported the Confederate cause. They sent more than their proportion of troops to Lee's army in Virginia, where most of the early fighting occurred. At the first battle of Manassas the Louisiana Tigers made themselves famous. The state also furnished four able generals, Beauregard, Bragg, Polk and Taylor. We have already seen how Beauregard and Bragg won fame years before in the War with Mexico. General Richard Taylor was the son of "Old Rough and Ready" and a brother-in-law of Jefferson Davis, and showed himself to be as capable a commander as his father had been. General Leonidas Polk was a cousin of James K. Polk, President of the United States, and he is known to history as "the fighting bishop." When the war broke he had been Episcopal bishop of Louisiana for twenty years, but he gave up his high position to join the army, and was made a major-general.

Louisiana also furnished two highly important civil officers to the Confederate government. One of these was a

lawyer, Judah P. Benjamin, who was sometimes called "the brains of the Confederacy." During the war he held at different times three positions in the cabinet of President Davis. At first he was Attorney-General; then he became

General Beauregard
Entrance to City Park, New Orleans

Secretary of War, and finally Secretary of State. Another Louisianian entrusted with a task of great importance was John Slidell, former United States Senator, who was sent as commissioner to France. He rendered a great service to the Confederate cause by gaining the sympathy of France

for the South and thus making it possible to obtain supplies for the Confederate soldiers and sailors.

Defenses.—In the first six months of the war twenty-four thousand troops marched away from Louisiana to the battle-fields of Virginia, and as fast as other troops were mustered in and equipped they, too, were being sent northward, where most of the fighting was taking place. Louisiana was so far from the scene of conflict that little attention was given to its defense against invasion. It was thought that Forts Jackson and St. Philip, about seventy-five miles below New Orleans, could keep a hostile fleet from coming up the Mississippi, and there were guns and earthworks at Vicksburg to prevent Union gunboats from coming down the stream.

The Confederates also had a number of small gunboats on the river, and a small body of troops was stationed at New Orleans. The situation was somewhat like that during the war with England in 1812-14. There were a few defenses, but no real protection against a powerful invasion, because none was expected.

Invasion Planned.—The Federal government, however, like the British nearly fifty years before, saw how it could deal a tremendous blow to the enemy by capturing New Orleans and overunning the lower Mississippi Valley.

Most of the war supplies shipped from Texas, Louisiana, Arkansas and parts of Mississippi passed through New Orleans. In the city also there were factories making all kinds of war materials, and the Union leaders were not slow to see that its capture would be a serious blow to the Confederacy. They therefore made plans to do this soon after the war began.

Flag Officer David G. Farragut was selected for the task, and a better choice could hardly have been made. One day in April, 1862, he boldly steamed up the river with forty-three ships. Forts Jackson and St. Philip blocked his way. These forts stood on opposite sides of the river, and below

them a line of small vessels without masts were chained together and stretched across the river to bar its passage. Commander Porter was ordered to bombard the forts with his mortar boats. For five days he kept up a hot fire on them, but they held out bravely. Farragut then decided on the bold venture of running his ships between the forts at night.

Running by the Forts.—At two o'clock on the morning of April twenty-fourth his vessels began their advance. The line of chained boats had already been broken apart, and as the fleet moved up-stream Porter at the same time kept up a heavy fire on the forts with his mortars. Farragut's ships also opened fire as they advanced. The forts returned the fire and Farragut's flagship was struck thirty-five times and was also set afire by one of the burning rafts which were sent down the river by the Confederates. Most of the Union vessels succeeded in running past the forts, and there was then nothing between them and New Orleans but the small Confederate gunboats. These were no match for Farragut's larger ships of war, and most of them were quickly destroyed.

New Orleans Taken.—As soon as word reached New Orleans that Farragut was coming all the Confederate war materials, such as cotton, sugar, tobacco and boats, were destroyed by order of General Mansfield Lovell, who commanded the troops stationed in the city. After this was done Lovell and his forces withdrew, and on April twenty-sixth the Union war-ships appeared, and Farragut's battered flagship anchored near the foot of Canal Street. Three days later the forts below the city surrendered to Porter, and two days after that General Benjamin F. Butler, who had been waiting at Ship Island with fifteen thousand troops until the river could be opened, brought up his forces and occupied New Orleans.

Butler in New Orleans.—For more than seven months General Butler ruled over New Orleans like a czar, and in

a short time he came to be thoroughly hated, not only in the conquered city, but throughout the South. His treatment of the people was so harsh that he was criticized even in the North. Some of his high-handed acts were condemned in the British Parliament and drew forth protests from the French and Dutch governments.

Butler had spies to keep watch on prominent families to find out whether they had concealed any valuable property and to report any act that might seem to show hostility to the Federals. For only slight causes, or none at all, men and women were arrested and fined, and some were sent as prisoners to Ship Island under a guard of negro soldiers. One woman was accused of standing on the balcony of her home and laughing when the funeral procession of a Federal officer passed her house. For this she was sentenced to two years' imprisonment on Ship Island. A Methodist minister at Baton Rouge received similar punishment, because a spy crouching outside his open windows one night had heard him pray for the Confederate cause while conducting family worship and had reported this to Butler.

In various ways Butler tried to stir up bad feeling among the lower classes of the city against those who were more fortunate, and he compelled the well-to-do to make heavy contributions for the pretended support of the poor. Under the pretence also of searching for arms soldiers entered the homes of the people and plundered them of silverware and other valuables.

With his brother and some other favorites General Butler engaged in unlawful trade with persons in the Confederate lines, exchanging provisions for cotton. The war had caused a cotton famine in the North, and the cotton which was bought within the Confederate lines for ten cents a pound could be sold immediately for sixty cents. Those who were allowed to engaged in this business became immensely rich in a short time, and Butler was a very wealthy man at the end of the war. He was much disliked and distrusted by

many officers in his own army. General Grant is quoted as referring to him as "a man who lived in a *bottle* and was fed from a *spoon*." He was referring in this way to Butler's drinking habits and to his having plundered the helpless people of their silver tableware.

Butler showed that he was no soldier by doing little or nothing to occupy any of the territory outside of New Orleans, though he had a large army at his command for this purpose, and near the end of the year 1862, to the great joy of the people of New Orleans, he was removed from his command. General N. P. Banks was put in his place.

QUESTIONS

1. What part did General Beauregard play at the beginning of the war?
2. Name the other important Confederate generals who came from Louisiana.
3. Who were Judah P. Benjamin? John Slidell?
4. Why was Louisiana so poorly defended against invasion?
5. Why did the Union leaders attach so much importance to the capture of New Orleans?
6. Describe how Farragut succeeded in reaching New Orleans.
7. What general was put in charge of New Orleans?
8. Tell about his conduct there.
9. Who finally was put in his place?

XLVIII

THE WAR IN LOUISIANA

After General Butler took possession of New Orleans Farragut proceeded up the river with his fleet and took possession of Baton Rouge. In the meantime Governor Moore had moved the capital to Opelousas. Federal troops under General Thomas Williams occupied the Baton Rouge garrison, and Farragut's fleet moved on up the river, bombarding and burning Bayou Sara, and running by the Confederate guns at Vicksburg just as it had run by Forts Jackson and St. Philip below New Orleans.

Battle of Baton Rouge.—The Confederates desired to regain Baton Rouge, as this place would be useful for landing war supplies brought down the Red River and for shipping them to the troops farther east. On August 5, 1862, General John C. Breckinridge, who had encamped with three thousand men on the Amite River, made an attack on this town.

Breckinridge knew that he could not hold Baton Rouge while there were Federal gunboats lying in front of the town on the river, and so it was planned to send the iron-clad ram *Arkansas* down from Vicksburg to drive away the gunboats while his soldiers attacked the garrison and sought to capture the town. The Confederates in Louisiana placed great hopes in this little iron-clad vessel. It had been built on the Yazoo River, and at a favorable opportunity it had dashed out into the Mississippi and run through the Federal fleet and anchored safely under the protection of Confederate guns at Vicksburg.

It was now sent down the river to help recapture Baton Rouge. As soon as Breckinridge was notified by telegraph that the *Arkansas* had passed Bayou Sara he began his march on Baton Rouge. His troops entered the town from the east and drove the Federal troops steadily back to the

levee, where they were under the protection of their gunboats and the Confederates could not follow. During the fighting General Williams, the Union commander, was killed.

The help which had been expected from the *Arkansas* did not come. About five miles above Baton Rouge her engines broke down, and she was set on fire and blown up by her crew to prevent her falling into the hands of the enemy. Being for this reason unable to hold the town, Breckinridge withdrew, and the Confederates made Port Hudson the point for receiving supplies from Texas and western Louisiana.

Lieutenant-General Richard Taylor

General "Dick" Taylor.—Practically all of Louisiana west of the Mississippi River was still held by the Confederates. General "Dick" Taylor, the son of Zachary Taylor, took command of all the forces in those parts of the state not held by the Federals, and although he often faced forces several times greater than his own he prevented the Union armies from ever going very far west of the Mississippi. Early in 1863 General Banks, who had succeeded Butler at New Orleans, brought together an army of twenty-five thousand men at Baton Rouge. These were sent against the much smaller army of General Taylor, and there were engagements at Bisland, Franklin, Opelousas, New Iberia and Bayou Vermilion. Taylor fought stubbornly, but had to fall back before the Federals' larger numbers. As Banks advanced toward Opelousas the capital was removed to Shreveport.

Fall of Port Hudson.—Banks now turned his attention from Taylor and laid siege to Port Hudson, while General Grant farther up the river was besieging Vicksburg. On

the fourth of July, 1863, Vicksburg fell after a heroic resistance against General Grant's huge army. Banks had made little progress against Port Hudson, but with the fall of Vicksburg the Union troops there were free to go to his aid, and on July ninth Port Hudson also surrendered. The entire Mississippi River was now in the hands of Union troops, and its control by them split the Confederacy in two. Though divided, it was still unconquered.

As soon as Banks withdrew from western Louisiana to Port Hudson General Taylor moved southward. At Berwick Bay he captured one thousand seven hundred men and secured plenty of guns, ammunition, medicines and other supplies for his poorly fed and clad troops. Next he moved up to Donaldsonville, and for three days was able to prevent any Federal troops from being transported by that point to reinforce Banks and Grant. His scouts captured and held the village of Kenner, ten miles above New Orleans, and he was planning an effort to recapture that city when word came of the fall of Vicksburg and Port Hudson. This left the Union commanders free to relieve New Orleans, in case it were attacked, and so Taylor withdrew to Bayou Têche. At the end of 1863, however, the Federal troops held only the river and a strip of territory from New Orleans westward to Berwick Bay, while all the rest of the state was in the hands of the Confederates.

Battle of Mansfield.—In 1864 the Federals planned to overrun western Louisiana by sending expeditions from three directions. One expedition with 10,000 men under General A. J. Smith was sent up Red River, another under General Franklin with 18,000 men was sent up the Têche, and a third under General Steele with 7,000 men was sent through Arkansas against Shreveport. To meet the forces coming up Red River and the Têche Taylor had only 8,800 men. The Union forces now brought together under Banks on Red River were three times that number. Banks had a large number of gunboats besides. At Mansfield on

April 8, 1864, the two armies met, and in a bloody engagement, with heavy losses on both sides, Banks was defeated and his army driven in disorder down the river, with Taylor close on his heels. At Alexandria the retreating Union forces gained the protection of Porter's fleet of gunboats, but Taylor succeeded in cutting Banks and Porter off from the Mississippi River for two weeks. The fleet and the army made their way to the Mississippi with difficulty, and Banks abandoned the Red River campaign and returned to New Orleans. This was the last of the fighting in Louisiana during the war.

Reconstruction Begun.—There were now two governments in Louisiana. General Banks had organized a new state government at New Orleans, which exercised control over those parts of the state within the Union lines. New Orleans was the capital for this government. Baton Rouge, the former capital, was held by the Federals, but the State House there had burned down. At New Orleans General George Shepley of the Union army acted as military governor until 1864, when he was succeeded by Michael Hahn, when the "loyal" state government was set up by General Banks. This marked the beginning of what was called "Reconstruction."

Meanwhile Governor Moore remained at the head of the Confederate state government till his term expired in January, 1864. General Henry W. Allen, who succeeded him, had been a good soldier, and he became a famous war governor. As we shall see hereafter, General Allen did much to help General Taylor in his successful campaign along Red River.

We have seen that the last fighting in Louisiana ended in a victory for the Confederates, but in Virginia, Tennessee and Georgia at this time the tide had turned in favor of the Union armies. In the spring of 1865 Richmond, the capital of the Confederacy, fell. President Davis and his cabinet fled south for safety, and on April ninth General Lee, seeing

that further resistance was useless, surrendered to General Grant at Appomattox in Virginia.

Down in Louisiana the Confederate troops were still under arms, and some of their officers wished to keep on fighting. Governor Allen, however, felt that further bloodshed should be avoided, and he and the governors of three other states west of the Mississippi River had a meeting and advised General Kirby Smith, the highest Confederate officer in command in this district, to surrender. He did so on May twenty-sixth. The state government which General Banks had set up within the Union lines was now extended all over Louisiana, and the one over which Governor Allen had presided at Shreveport came to an end.

The fighting was over, but many years were to pass before the state was to enjoy real peace. Just five days after the surrender of Lee's army President Lincoln was shot and killed in Washington by John Wilkes Booth, a half insane actor. The death of Lincoln proved a great calamity to the South. Had he lived he might have kept a check on the radical politicians who were bent on bringing further punishment and suffering on the southern people. Andrew Johnson, the man who succeeded Lincoln, could not do so.

QUESTIONS

1. Where did Farragut go after leaving New Orleans?
2. Why did the Confederates seek to recover Baton Rouge?
3. Describe the battle fought there.
4. Tell the story of the *Arkansas*.
5. What towns served as capitals of Louisiana during the war?
6. Describe the campaign of General "Dick" Taylor before the fall of Vicksburg.
7. Tell about the battle of Mansfield.
8. Why did Louisiana at this time have two governments?
9. Describe the ending of the war in Louisiana.

XLIX

LIFE IN WAR TIMES

When the Southern States seceded there were many people in the South who refused to believe that war would follow, and when fighting actually began most people thought that it would be over in a few months. That was what everybody hoped, and many hoped this so strongly that they also earnestly believed it. Consequently during the first few months of the war life in Louisiana and in the other Southern States seemed gayer than it had been before.

Many of the young men who joined the army regarded what was before them as a kind of holiday adventure. When a group of soldiers were about to leave their home town gay parties and balls were given in their honor. The women busied themselves making the first gray uniforms for the soldiers of their own families. The Confederate government was just being organized, and it was not able to give every soldier a complete outfit as soon as he enlisted. In every town where a company was organized there would be a ceremony at which one of the prettiest young girls in the place would present the company with a Confederate flag made by herself and her girl friends. The soldiers in turn would give dress parades, and at night serenade the young ladies. Sometimes there would be picnics and barbecues, and finally would come the exciting leave-taking. The people at first were very enthusiastic over their new "nation," as they called the Confederacy, and if any one dreaded what the future might bring he was careful to keep his fears to himself.

Days of Trial.—But after the war set in in earnest the people grew more serious. News of sons or brothers killed or wounded drove all gaiety from many homes, and it

increased the anxiety in others. The news traveled slowly then, and after the report of a battle in Virginia or Tennessee reached Louisiana many weeks would pass before the anxious families could learn whether their loved ones had come through safely. Nearly every letter that came from the front brought word of some friend or relative killed, wounded, sick, or a prisoner of the enemy.

Out on the plantations and farms, where most of the people in Louisiana lived, nearly all the young and able-bodied men were gone to the army, but the older men, boys, women folk and the negroes were as busy as bees trying to raise enough food for themselves and for the fighting men too. On the largest plantations, before the invading armies came, there was enough and to spare. The poorer farmers, however, had a harder time of it. Everybody was urged to economize, and this was easy, because luxuries were hard to find.

The Blockade.—In the very first month of the war the Federal government proclaimed a blockade of the southern ports. This meant that no vessel could enter or leave any harbor in the Confederacy without risk of capture by one of the Union vessels stationed outside. This blockade greatly crippled the South and did more than anything else to decide the result of the war.

Up to this time there had been very little manufacturing in the South. The people of Louisiana shipped their cotton, sugar and rice to the North or to foreign countries, and with the money they obtained in this way they bought manufactured articles from the Northern States and from Europe. When the blockade went into effect they could not bring what they needed from across the seas, and trade between the North and South had already been broken up by the war.

It was not long, then, before many things which once had been easily obtained became very scarce. Small articles, such as matches, needles, nails, cutlery, writing paper,

glassware, soap and starch, do not seem so very important while they are plentiful, but without any of them life loses much of its comfort. All these things, and many more besides, became harder and harder to get in the Southern States as the war went on. Flour and coffee also became scarce, and after the Mississippi River fell into Union hands they were rarely to be had except in the districts held by Federal troops.

In Louisiana the worst suffering from lack of food seems to have occurred in the Florida parishes. With the river controlled by the Federals the people there were cut off from the help of their friends in western Louisiana. The Union troops made raids through the parishes and carried away the horses, cattle and corn, leaving the inhabitants destitute. These raids occurred on both sides of the Mississippi River, along Bayou Têche, and as far up the Red River as Alexandria.

During the first year of the war salt became very scarce, but in 1862 a mine of pure salt was found on Avery's Island. This was a most fortunate discovery for the people of Louisiana, and great quantities of salt were mined and distributed in the state.

Changed Living Conditions.—In the regions that escaped the Federal raiders there was usually a fair supply of corn meal, hominy and pork, and in the southern parishes there was also rice, sugar and syrup. As a substitute for coffee parched corn and peanuts, and even thin slices of sweet potato toasted brown and crisp, were used. When buttons became scarce persimmon seed or circular pieces of gourd, with small holes punched through them, served the purpose. When leather was not to be had shoes were made of heavy canvas, with soles of wood. This canvas and other kinds of cloth were made by the women in their homes. Old spinning wheels were brought down from the attic or plunder room, and the grandmothers who once had used them taught the younger women the art of spinning. Weaving

was more difficult, but many women became skilled weavers, and could make beautiful cotton cloth with home-made dyes. When old woolen or silk garments showed wear they were ripped up, the insides turned out, and sewed together again.

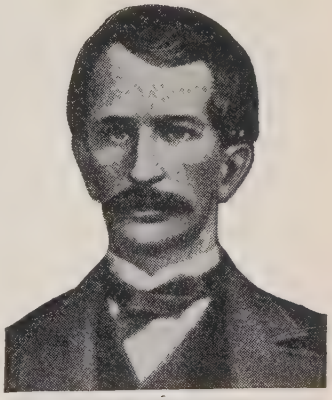
The Confederate government was always too poor to clothe its soldiers as they deserved, and large numbers of them were often barefooted and in rags. The southern women perhaps did more than the government in clothing the army. The women of each family tried to look after the male members who had gone to the front. Socks and mittens were knitted, and flannel shirts were cut out and sewed. Boxes containing all sorts of clothes, along with blankets and sometimes dainty things to eat, would be sent to their relatives in camp. In the towns the women organized sewing societies to prepare clothing for the soldiers, and these clubs undertook to see that no soldier from their town was neglected. This was hard work, but it was good for the women who had to stay at home, as it kept them from becoming gloomy during the days of anxiety.

In spite of their trials and hardships, the people kept up their courage and remained cheerful. They even succeeded in making jokes about their lack of things that make life comfortable. Thus they referred to their tin spoons and cups as "Confederate silver." Corn meal was called "Confederate flour" and pine torches were called "Confederate gas."

During the war both the Confederate and the state governments printed large quantities of paper money, and the more they printed the less it would buy. Toward the end of the war a gold or silver dollar in American money was worth about sixty dollars in Confederate paper. In other words, a Confederate dollar was worth only about one and a half cents in our present coin. Coffee was so scarce that it took two hundred dollars of paper money to buy as much as could have been bought with a good dollar before the war. This paper money worked an especial hardship on the

poor, because no matter how much of it they had it seemed never enough to buy them the bare necessities of life.

Along the South Atlantic and the gulf coast there grew up the practise of "running the blockade." Fast-sailing vessels that could navigate in shallow bays and inlets where the heavier war-ships and gunboats did not dare follow would slip out on dark nights with cargoes of cotton, which they carried to some port in the West Indies and on their return trip brought supplies for the army, such as cannon, rifles, lead, blankets, shoes, coffee and medicines. Large quantities of cotton were also sent from Louisiana into Mexico, where it was exchanged for goods that the soldiers and people so badly needed.



Henry Watkins Allen

Henry W. Allen.—At the beginning of 1864 Governor Moore's term of office came to an end, and he was succeeded by General Henry W. Allen. Before this Allen had been in command of the Fourth Regiment of Louisiana. He was badly wounded at the battle of Baton Rouge, and when he became governor he was still using crutches. Governor Allen put new energy into the people during the last year of the war. The struggle had been going on for nearly three years; the people had borne many heavy losses; their state was invaded and the enemy seemed to be growing stronger as they grew weaker. Little wonder, then, that they were anxious and discouraged.

Governor Allen took his ambulance, and though pale and weak from his wounds, he made a tour of all the state under Confederate control, delivering speeches that stirred the

people to further efforts in spite of what they had already suffered. He recruited a large number of men for the army, some of whom were enlisted east of the Mississippi River, almost in sight of the Federal camps.

Next he sent agents to gather cotton and sugar, which were shipped to Mexico in wagons and exchanged for cloth and cloth-making machinery. No luxuries were allowed to come in. In North Louisiana, safe from the Federal raiders, he set up a cotton factory, a rope factory, and a factory for making cotton cards. He undertook to give a pair of cotton cards to every woman in the state, and before the war ended he had nearly succeeded in doing so. These cards were brushes of short wire with wooden backs and handles, somewhat like a hair brush, but larger. One of these would be held in each hand, and they would be drawn in opposite directions with cotton between them. This would comb out any tangles in the fibers and make the cotton soft and smooth and ready to be spun into yarn.

Governor Allen also started the production of spirits of turpentine, alcohol and castor oil for medical purposes, and supplied the people with drugs at actual cost. To those unable to pay he furnished medicines free, and he supplied many destitute families of soldiers with food and clothes. As a war measure he put a stop to the use of corn and sugar cane in the making of intoxicating liquors.

The governor also won the gratitude of the Louisianians by obtaining a quantity of good paper from Mexico. It had become so scarce that school-books had been printed on ordinary wrapping paper, and newspapers at times were printed on the back of wall paper.

When the Confederate troops in Louisiana laid down their arms Governor Allen gave up his office also. He issued a farewell address to the people, urging them to accept the results of the war, to take the oath of allegiance to the Union, and to work hard to restore the prosperity of the state. To avoid the arrest and imprisonment that befell cer-

tain other high officials of the Confederate States, Governor Allen went to Mexico City, but he did not long survive the Lost Cause, as he died there a year later. Some years later his body was brought back to Louisiana, and buried in the Capitol grounds, where a monument stands to his memory.

QUESTIONS

1. Why was there so much gaiety at the beginning of the war?
2. How did the women help equip the Confederate army?
3. Show how the people grew more serious as the war continued.
4. Describe life on the plantations during the war.
5. What was the effect of the blockade?
6. What was the effect of Union raids?
7. How did the people get their salt?
8. What substitutes were used for leather, buttons, coffee?
9. What was meant by "Confederate gas"?
10. Why did Confederate money buy so little?
11. Tell about the work of Governor Allen.

Old Army Barracks at Baton Rouge
Later used as university dormitories

L

CARPET-BAG RULE

The end of the war did not at once bring peace and prosperity to Louisiana. On the battle-fields of Virginia, Georgia, Maryland and Pennsylvania thousands of her bravest sons lay dead. Many thousands more limped back home disabled by wounds and sickness or broken by the hardships of the camp and the shock of battle.

On January 1, 1863, President Lincoln had issued his Emancipation Proclamation declaring slavery at an end in all the states in arms against the Union. Wherever the Union armies went the slaves were freed, and hundreds of thousands of ignorant negroes shifted from place to place, not knowing how to use their freedom. Many of them thought that freedom meant no more work.

Discouraging Picture.—Farms and plantations had badly run down during the war, and in the regions where Banks' army had been they were in ruins. Cotton gins and sugar mills had been burned, and horses and other live stock carried off. The steamboats were no longer on the rivers, and the railway tracks had been worn out or torn up, and the bridges and trestles destroyed.

The Confederate soldier often came home to find that his house had been ransacked, his lands overrun with weeds and grass, and the plantation hands all gone. It was a discouraging picture that lay before him, but he set to work following the arts of peace as bravely as he had once followed the arts of war.

Johnson's Policy.—President Lincoln favored a mild policy of dealing with the former Confederate States. He believed that no state could really leave the Union and that consequently the Southern States had never been out of it. All

that was needed was for loyal citizens in each state to set up a new government to replace the one that had been overthrown by arms. Andrew Johnson, who succeeded Lincoln as president, adopted the same plan, and under the new governments which he set up the former Confederate soldiers, except a few who had held high offices, were allowed to vote, and if they had been pardoned by the president, even to hold office.

In the meantime a party had been growing up in the North that was bitterly opposed to this mild method of dealing with the South. This group came to be called the Radicals. They thought that the South ought to be severely punished for the part it had taken in the war, and they wished to do this by taking the vote away from the ex-Confederates and giving it to negroes. In Louisiana there were more negroes than white persons, and to give the black man the vote meant that the control of the state would pass from the hands of the intelligent citizens into those of the ignorant and incapable.

The negroes, if left to themselves, could have made very little use of the ballot. But they fell at once under the control of scheming politicians. Many of these were adventurers from the North, who flocked into the Southern States in great numbers after the war. They had high hopes of taking advantage of the confusion and turmoil to carry out their corrupt designs and grow rich quickly. Some of them succeeded.

"Carpet-Baggers."—To such newcomers the southerners gave the nickname of "carpet-baggers" because many of them had arrived from the North bringing all that they owned in a cheap kind of satchel made of a coarse piece of carpet.

The state governments that had been set up under the plan of Lincoln and Johnson did not last very long. The Radicals got control of Congress, and proceeded to ride rough-shod over the president. They put the Southern

States under strict military rule. Louisiana for a time ceased to have a state government and became part of a military district over which General Sheridan ruled with an iron hand. Preparations were made to build a new state government from the ground up, but Sheridan and his officers saw to it that very few white people should have any hand in this work. The best class of white people were denied the right to vote, while all the negro men were registered as voters.

The first task of the voters was to choose members of a convention to draw up a new constitution for Louisiana. As was to be expected, this convention contained twice as many negroes as whites. Many of the blacks could neither read nor write, but the Radicals seemed to think that such men could be trusted to make laws affecting the lives and property of nearly a million people.

New Constitution.—The constitution drawn up by this convention was just what one would expect from such a body. It provided that hotels, schools, trains and all other public places should be opened to blacks and whites alike. Every person who had taken an active part in the war on the Confederate side was deprived of the right to vote. Since all state officers would therefore be carpet-baggers or negroes, the convention saw to it that they would receive nice fat salaries.

The first governor chosen under this constitution was H. C. Warmoth, who came from Illinois. The lieutenant-governor was Oscar Dunn, a negro. Two carpet-baggers, Kellogg and Harris, were elected as United States Senators.

The government thus set up was dishonest and extravagant. Corrupt adventurers and ignorant negroes were absolute masters of the state, and its best people were allowed no voice in its affairs. In order to handle the black voters more easily the Radical leaders organized them into Union Leagues. The officers of the Leagues kept the negroes under strict control and saw that they always voted the

Radical ticket. President Grant, who had now succeeded Johnson, also kept Federal troops in all the Southern States ready to come to the aid of the carpet-bag governments at a moment's notice.

Knights of the White Camelia.—In May, 1867, an association called the Knights of the White Camelia was organized in Franklin, St. Mary's Parish. Its members took a solemn oath to do everything in their power to prevent the election of blacks to office and to keep the government in the hands of the white race. The leading citizens of the state joined the Knights of the White Camelia, and the organization soon spread to all parts of Louisiana. The camelia, from which it took its name, is a flower noted for its beauty and whiteness, and was thus regarded as a fit emblem of white supremacy. The Knights called one another brothers and had a number of signs and passwords that enabled one knight to recognize another and to call on his brothers for help in case of trouble.

Another organization which used different methods of fighting the carpet-baggers and the negro politicians was the Ku Klux Klan. The Klan was not nearly so strong in Louisiana as in Tennessee, Alabama and Mississippi, and it seems to have operated in only about half a dozen parishes. Members of the Ku Klux Klan would disguise themselves with white robes and ride out at night to frighten the negroes and keep them from voting, or to drive Radicals and carpet-baggers out of the community. The Ku Klux would pretend to be ghosts of Confederate soldiers who had been killed in battle, and as the ignorant negroes were very superstitious this trick for a time was highly effective. After a time lawless men who had no connection with the Klan began to disguise themselves as Klansmen and resort to deeds of violence, and to save the organization from having to bear the blame its officers ordered the members to disband. The Knights of the White Camelia also came to an end in a short time, but the place of these two organiza-

tions was taken later in Louisiana by the powerful White League.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the condition of the state immediately after the war?
2. What did the soldiers do on returning to their homes?
3. How did President Johnson plan to deal with the former Confederate States?
4. How did the plan of the Radicals differ from his?
5. Who were the "carpet-baggers"?
6. What new ideas were embodied in the constitution drawn up by the Radicals?
7. What was the nature of the carpet-bag government?
8. What were: Union Leagues? Knights of the White Camelia? Ku Klux Klan?

LI

THE STATE REDEEMED

The eight years of carpet-bag government in Louisiana were nearly as great a scourge as the four years of war that had preceded them. Louisiana suffered more from the corrupt rule of the reconstruction period than any other Southern State. This was because New Orleans, being the largest and richest city in the South, attracted more carpet-baggers than any other place. It seemed to offer the greatest promise of plunder. It is estimated that soon after the war between four thousand and five thousand northern adventurers settled in Louisiana, and most of them in its chief city.

Extravagance.—In less than three years the Radical legislature added $33,000,000 to the state's debt. This means that the government was piling up a debt at the rate of nearly a million dollars a month. During one session of the legislature that body cost the state $113 per day for each member. Scores of useless offices with big salaries were created, and thousands of dollars were paid out for services and materials that the state never received.

The office-holders finally fell to quarreling among themselves over the spoils. Governor Warmoth, though himself accused of growing rich while in office, turned against the worst men of his party and bitterly denounced them. This led to violent quarrels and even fights between the two groups of Radicals. The enemies of Warmoth were known as the Custom-House Party, because they made their headquarters in the New Orleans Custom-House. The leaders of this group were two carpet-baggers, S. B. Packard, the United States Marshal, and George W. Carter, Speaker of the House. Packard tried to drive Warmoth out of office;

he once had him arrested, and shut some of his supporters out of the legislature. Finally the Packard men in the legislature withdrew from the State House, and organized what they called "the true legislature," which held its meetings over a saloon in bold defiance of the Warmoth men. There were fights between the two groups in the streets, and one day in January, 1872, a mob of nearly three thousand men of the Custom-House party undertook to storm the State House and take forcible possession. This was prevented by the commander of the Federal troops.

"Liberal Republican Party."—General Grant was now president of the United States. He had been a great soldier, but he was not a good politician, and he was frequently misled or badly advised by men who were not worthy of his confidence. In dealing with southern affairs he followed the advice of the extreme Radicals and consequently committed some terrible blunders. He was guilty of one such blunder when he decided to support the Packard crowd against Governor Warmoth. This drove Governor Warmoth and his followers to organize a "Liberal Republican" party and at the next election, in 1872, they united with the Democrats, who had nominated John McEnery for governor and Davidson Penn for lieutenant-governor. The Radicals nominated W. P. Kellogg for governor and C. C. Antoine, a negro, for lieutenant-governor.

At the election in November McEnery received a majority of the votes, but the Radicals claimed to have won, and appealed to Grant. He followed his usual custom of siding with the Radicals and ordered the Federal troops to support Kellogg as governor, and also named a negro, P. B. S. Pinchback, as acting governor till Kellogg should be inaugurated. Packard got a detachment of troops and seized the State House, and when the legislature met in December Pinchback took control as governor.

Two days later McEnery's supporters, who had not been allowed to take their seats in the legislature, met in the City

Hall and set up their own law-making body. McEnery was inaugurated as governor there, while Kellogg was inaugurated at the State House. Louisiana now had two governments, one supported by the decent citizens of the state and the other supported by Federal troops.

Packard and Kellogg were both carpet-baggers, and the support which they received from President Grant in defiance of the will of the people convinced the Louisianians that the only way they could regain their liberty was to fight for it. They refused to wear the yoke which the Radicals sought to put upon their necks. In a number of places the people declined to pay any taxes under the Kellogg government, and when officers and troops were sent to collect the taxes by force there was rioting and fighting. In Colfax there was a regular battle between whites and blacks.

The White League.—The best citizens now began to join the White League, which had been formed to set up free government by white men. The League spread rapidly over the state. It held a big meeting at Baton Rouge and announced that it would insure fair elections at any cost. Its members organized themselves in military companies and began to drill and collect arms and ammunition. Soon it became evident that the League was resolved to put an end to carpet-bag rule and restore self-government in the state.

On Sunday, September thirteenth, a notice appeared in the New Orleans newspapers calling on all true citizens to close their places of business and attend a meeting on Canal Street around the Henry Clay monument the next morning. They did so and assembled in great numbers. A committee was sent to the State House with a demand that Kellogg surrender his office. The carpet-bag governor, however, had fled to the Custom-House, where he was protected by Federal soldiers, and he refused to see the committee or receive any word from them. The meeting then broke up, and the members of the White League were ordered to form their companions under arms that afternoon. A few hours

later squads of armed men from all sections of the city began to march to their appointed places above Canal Street. General Frederick N. Ogden, a Civil War veteran, was put in command of the forces.

Battle of September 14.—Kellogg's Metropolitan Police sought to disperse them by opening fire with cannon and gatling guns near the Custom-House. Ogden's men were soldiers well used to battle. They charged the Metropolitans and chased them down the levee and out of the city, while the Union soldiers cheered the victors. The Leaguers now had full control of the city, but the Radicals again appealed to President Grant, who sent more soldiers and ships of war to restore Kellogg to power. The League made it a point not to resist Federal troops, and the Radical government was again restored.

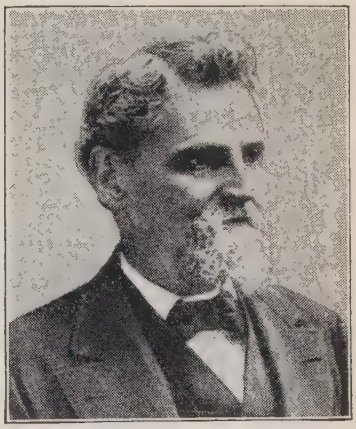
In November a new legislature was elected. Outside of New Orleans the Radicals were severely defeated, and the Democrats gained a large majority of seats. Kellogg again used Federal troops and drove the Democratic members out of the State House.

In the meantime there was growing opposition even in the North to Grant's repeated use of troops in the state to overthrow the will of the majority of its citizens, and so many protests were made to Congress that it sent a special committee to Louisiana to investigate the trouble. It reported that the people wanted nothing but "peace, justice, fair elections and good government."

Peace and better government came to Louisiana in a most unexpected way. In 1876 the Democrats nominated General Francis T. Nicholls for governor. He was a one-armed and one-legged Confederate veteran who had fought under Stonewall Jackson. The Radicals nominated the carpet-bagger Packard. The Democrats again carried the election, but the Radicals sought to steal it as they had done before when McEnery was elected. As a result, two governors were again inaugurated, Packard in the State House and Nicholls

in St. Patrick's Hall. But this time the Federal troops failed to support the Radicals, and their pretended government slowly fell to pieces. At last Louisiana was redeemed from the rule of the carpet-bagger.

The Radicals made their usual frantic appeal to President Grant, but by this time he had become convinced that the people throughout the country no longer approved of his using troops to keep a body of men in office in a state against the will of its citizens, and he declined to interfere.



Francis Tillou Nicholls

In March, 1877, Grant's term expired, and he was succeeded by Rutherford B. Hayes. The election of President Hayes had been bitterly disputed by the Democrats. They claimed that they carried Louisiana and three other states whose electoral votes had been awarded to Hayes. The disappointed Democrats were somewhat appeased, however, when Hayes promised them that he would withdraw the Federal troops from the Southern States.

The president kept his promise. He came into office on March 4, and on April 24 the Federal troops were withdrawn from around the State House in New Orleans, and Packard, who had been in possession of the building and claiming to be governor for nearly four months, peacefully withdrew. This left Governor Nicholls and his legislature in full control, and the evil days of reconstruction were a thing of the past.

QUESTIONS

1. Why did Louisiana suffer more from the carpet-baggers than other Southern States?
2. Tell about the extravagance of the government.
3. What was the Custom-House Party?
4. Describe the fight between Packard and Warmoth.
5. Who were the "Liberal Republicans"?
6. How did Grant settle the quarrel between Warmoth and Kellogg?
7. Who was Pinchback?
8. What was the White League?
9. Describe the Battle of September fourteenth.
10. How did the Federal government finally change its attitude toward the reconstructed state?

Liberty Monument
Memorial to the citizens killed in battle of September 14th, 1874

LII

PEACE AND PROGRESS

With the restoration of the government of the state into the hands of those to whom it rightfully belonged, prosperity slowly returned to Louisiana. Political strife quieted down, and consequently the citizens could go ahead with their business without the fears and uncertainties that had hitherto been a disturbing influence.

The former slaves learned also to make better use of their freedom. They found that freedom did not mean idleness, and that all able-bodied adults who wish to eat must also be willing to work. Great numbers of them went to raising cotton on shares as tenant farmers, while others secured work on the plantations or in the towns at wages. Since the days of reconstruction they and their descendants have made progress in many ways. Many of them have acquired property, and their facilities for education are steadily improving.

In a message to Congress a year after the Federal troops had been withdrawn from Louisiana President Hayes declared that the unhappy civil strife was over and that in its place there was now "friendship and patriotic attachment to the Union." But there were some clouds along with the sunshine. During the Civil War, while the southern ports were blockaded, yellow fever was kept out of the Gulf States. Now that ships from tropical countries were again crowding the port of New Orleans the fever reappeared. In 1878 a terrible epidemic swept over the Gulf States, and in New Orleans alone there were nearly four thousand victims. The scourge returned in the following years, but was not so fatal. This finally caused the state in 1885 to set up a system of quarantine, so that every vessel coming from a port where the fever was prevalent was required to anchor down

Mardi Gras Parade, New Orleans

the river until all danger of its bringing fever into port was passed. After this the epidemics were fewer, and when one did break out the number of fever victims was much smaller. Finally, as we shall see later, the terrible disease was stamped out entirely.

Margaret Haughery.—The yellow fever epidemics always brought many acts of devotion and sacrifice, and one of those who did much to relieve the suffering during these trying times was Margaret Haughery, known to all the people of New Orleans as "Margaret." Her parents were poor Irish immigrants who died from yellow fever in Baltimore soon after they landed. After Margaret grew up she married and came to New Orleans, but her husband and baby died and she was again left alone in the world.

She had never had a chance to attend school and could neither read nor write, but in spite of this drawback she went to work first with a dairy and later with a bakery and accumulated a large fortune. Remembering her own sufferings as an orphan and what she had lost by the yellow fever, she spent her money in caring for orphans and in helping fever victims. A statue was raised to her memory in New Orleans soon after her death, and this is said to be the first statue ever raised in honor of a woman in this country.

Controlling the River.—Another great affliction from which the state suffered at this time was the floods along the Mississippi River. During the Civil War the levees had been entirely neglected, and a number of crevasses had occurred which remained open year after year. The river poured through these at high water and made it impossible to cultivate large areas of fertile lands. The carpet-bag government had spent about $11,000,000 supposedly for the repair of the levees, but there was little to show for it.

Under Governor Nicholls's administration a State Board of Engineers was established to look after the levee work. It could do little at first, because the people after the war and their other misfortunes were unable to bear the heavy

expense. In 1882 there came a destructive flood which drove over a hundred thousand people from their homes, and caused great hardship and suffering. After this the Federal government recognized the fact that it was its duty to help the state keep the river under control. About two-thirds of the area of the United States is drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries. Consequently a mighty volume of water pours down into Louisiana, and it has no way to prevent its coming. It was seen to be only fair, then, that the other states should do something to help in controlling the unruly stream, and the United States government came to the aid of the state. The crevasses were closed, and the levee system is being constantly improved by the combined efforts of the state and national governments.

Another improvement on the Mississippi River was made in this period. You will recall that the early explorers found the mouths of the river very shallow, and the French officials were at first opposed to making New Orleans the capital of the colony because they doubted whether ships could pass over the mud bars. The great river is always carrying a vast quantity of mud down to the gulf. When it encounters the quiet waters of the gulf its flow is checked, and the solid matter which has been borne along by the rapid current begins to fall to the bottom. In this way the mud bars are formed at the mouth of the stream. Iberville's engineer, Pauger, had maintained that if the channel were narrowed near the passes the current would become swifter and would scour the bed of the river and clear away the bars. His advice was not followed, and in the period before the Civil War much money was spent in dredging the passes. But the river always brought down more mud and the channel would soon fill again.

The Jetties.—In 1873 James B. Eads, a famous engineer, examined the bars, and he recommended a plan very like that of Pauger. Many people thought him a dreamer, and the New Orleans merchants sent delegates to Washing-

ton to oppose the adoption of such a strange idea by Congress. They wanted a ship canal leading from the river just below Fort St. Philip into the gulf. After a long and bitter fight Congress accepted Eads's plan, and he was authorized to begin his work. The waters near the mouth of the river were confined in a narrow channel by the building of jetties. These were a network of woven willows weighted down with stone and then sunk and held in place by piles or heavy timbers driven into the bed of the river. The plan was highly successful, and the Mississippi River now scours out its own channel at the point where it used to be always filling up.

New Constitution.—During this period Louisiana was still governed under the constitution of 1868, which had been forced upon the state when the Radicals were in control. You will recall that this constitution contained many things that were likely to create bad feeling between the white and black people of the state. It provided, for example, that all the public schools and the State University should be thrown open to persons of both races, and that hotels, restaurants, railway trains, steamboats and theaters should also receive both whites and blacks without distinction. In 1879 a new constitution was adopted which did away with these objectionable features. This constitution also provided that the capital, which since the war had been in New Orleans, should be returned to Baton Rouge. The State House, which had been burned during the war, was rebuilt, the citizens of Baton Rouge contributing a large sum for this purpose.

Another sign that the state was recovering from the war was seen in 1884, when a great exposition was held in New Orleans to celebrate the hundredth anniversary of the shipment of cotton from the United States. The state, city, and a number of towns and parishes raised a fund of about a million dollars, and a fine exhibit was held in what is now Audubon Park. Visitors from all parts of the coun-

try flocked to New Orleans, and the exposition proved a means of drawing the people of the North and South together once more and thus aided in healing the old wounds left by the war.

QUESTIONS

1. Show how Louisiana began to improve after the overthrow of the carpet-baggers.
2. What was the chief hindrance to progress at this time?
3. Give the chief facts about the work of Margaret Haughery.
4. Describe the efforts made to control the river floods.
5. Who was James B. Eads, and what did he do?
6. What changes were made by the new constitution of 1879?
7. Tell about the New Orleans exposition in 1884.
8. How did it help heal the breach between the North and the South?

Monument to Margaret Haughery, New Orleans

LIII

RECENT HISTORY

As the years went by Louisiana gradually recovered from the effects of the long Civil War and the much longer period of Reconstruction, but the corrupt carpet-bag legislature fastened one evil upon the state which it took nearly twenty-five years to remove. This was the Louisiana State Lottery. A lottery is a gambling device. Persons buy lottery tickets for small amounts in the hope of winning a much greater sum. Each ticket bears a number, and at the end of a certain time cards bearing these numbers are placed in a box and one is drawn out. The holder of the ticket bearing the number drawn out gets a prize. A long time ago lotteries were conducted in all parts of the country, and many school houses and even some churches were built with money received from the sale of lottery tickets.

The Louisiana State Lottery that the legislature created in 1868 got the sole right to conduct lotteries in Louisiana, and in return was required to pay $40,000 a year for the support of the public schools. It soon had agents in all parts of the country selling tickets. Every month it had a drawing for a prize of $30,000, and twice a year it held drawings for a prize of $100,000.

The influence of this was very bad. Thousands of poor people who hoped to get something for nothing spent their hard-earned wages for lottery tickets, and the more they lost the more eager they were to try again in the hope that luck would turn their way next time and give them back all they had spent and more besides.

Defeat of the Lottery.—Shortly after the carpet-bag government was overthrown the legislature tried to abolish

the lottery, but the company operating it had become nearly as powerful as the legislature itself, and it finally succeeded in having its privileges extended to 1895. Three years before this date it began a great campaign to have its rights renewed for twenty-five years more, but the best people of the state had seen its evil influence and were determined to destroy it. When all else failed the company finally offered the state thirty times as much as it had formerly paid, or $1,200,000 a year, in return for a renewal of its privileges.

This was a tempting offer. It would have enabled the state government to pay all its expenses, and the people would have had to pay no state taxes. The people refused to be bribed in this way, however, and when the final test came the lottery company met with defeat. This was the greatest political fight that the state had seen since the days when the White League put an end to carpet-bag rule, and the destruction of the lottery was hailed everywhere as a great moral victory.

In 1896 there was another sharp political contest in the state. The Democratic party was in control in the Congress at Washington at this time and it had given great offense to the sugar planters of Louisiana by depriving them of protection against competition from the cheaper sugar made in Cuba. As a result, many of the planters joined the Republican party and called themselves "Lily Whites," because they wished to form a Republican party in the South with a white membership. Their candidate was John Newton Pharr, a former Confederate soldier, who had strong support in the sugar districts and also in the parishes where there were few negro voters. The election was close, and Pharr claimed to have been chosen, although the official count showed that Murphy J. Foster, the Democratic candidate, had been elected. It was claimed by Pharr that many ignorant negroes had voted the Democratic ticket.

Constitution of 1898.—The outcome of this disputed election was the calling of a convention in 1898 to draw up a new constitution. This contained a number of provisions that made it impossible for any political party to use ignorant colored voters to help win elections in the future. The right to vote was denied to those who could not read or write, or who did not own a certain amount of property.

Murphy James Foster

In the same year in which the new constitution was adopted war was declared between the United States and Spain. For a number of years an insurrection had been going on in Cuba, and Spain, which then owned the island, had been unable to suppress it. Many stories of the harsh treatment of the Cuban people by General Weyler, the Spanish captain-general, reached the United States and increased the sympathy of the American people for the Cuban revolutionists. On February 15, 1898, the United States battleship *Maine,* visiting Havana, was blown up with a heavy loss of life, and numbers of people believed that it was done by the carefully planned explosion of a Spanish mine over which the ship had been anchored, though this was never proved.

Spanish-American War.—War fever was soon at its height, and the result was that Congress passed a resolution calling on Spain to withdraw from Cuba and authorizing the president to use the army and navy to carry out this order. President McKinley called for volunteers, and Louisiana furnished two regiments of infantry and three batteries of artillery. The war lasted only four months, and none of the Louisiana volunteers took part in the fight-

ing. Nevertheless, the conflict had important results for Louisiana and the other Southern States. While American troops occupied Havana that city got a thorough cleaning, perhaps for the first time in its history, and was practically freed of yellow fever. It was mainly from Havana that yellow fever had been brought so often to the United States, and the cleansing of the city removed a terrible menace from this country.

While they were stationed in Cuba American physicians had a better opportunity to study the causes of yellow fever, and they finally proved, after many experiments, that this disease is spread by a variety of mosquito. The discovery of the cause of the fever made it a fairly simple undertaking to stamp it out, and there are now only a few remote spots in the world where it still persists.

When the health officers were making their tests in order to find out the cause of the disease one of their number, Doctor Walter Reed, volunteered to be bitten by a mosquito which had previously bitten a fever patient. He contracted the disease and died, but in his death he rendered a great service to his fellow man, and Louisiana, which was formerly so often scourged by this dread malady, owes a great debt to his memory.

There was also a Louisiana physician and scientist who devoted many years of his life to a study of the mosquito. This was Doctor James W. Dupree. For a number of years he was surgeon-general of Louisiana and was also surgeon to the State University at Baton Rouge. There he had a well-equipped laboratory in which he kept specimens of nearly every variety of mosquito to be found anywhere in the country, and he made a careful record of their habits and life-history. To the university students these mosquitoes were known as "Doctor Jimmie's pets." Doctor Dupree was among the first scientists to accept the idea that the mosquito was a carrier of certain diseases, and he

did much to improve health conditions by showing the people the best way to combat this harmful insect.

Chief Justice White.—Louisiana has furnished the country one president, as we have already noted, and in 1910 the state was honored by having one of its native sons chosen as chief justice of the highest court in the land. This was Edward Douglas White, a son of a former governor of Louisiana who bore the same name. Chief Justice White was a Confederate veteran, and he had been a member of the Supreme Court of Louisiana from 1878 to 1891, when he resigned to become United States Senator. Three years later President Cleveland appointed him a justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and in 1910 President Taft promoted him to chief justice of that court. He served in that position until his death in 1921, and during this time he attained a reputation for his thorough knowledge of the law and took high rank among the able jurists who have sat on the Supreme bench.

QUESTIONS

1. Name one evil set up by the carpet-bag legislature that lasted for years after the overthrow of the reconstruction government.
2. What did the state receive from the lottery company?
3. Tell about the struggle that led to the company's overthrow.
4. What political events led to the adoption of the constitution of 1898?
5. What important changes in voting requirements were provided by that constitution?
6. Tell about the Spanish-American War and Louisiana's part in it.
7. What specially beneficial results did this war have for Louisiana?
8. Sketch the career of Chief Justice White.

LIV

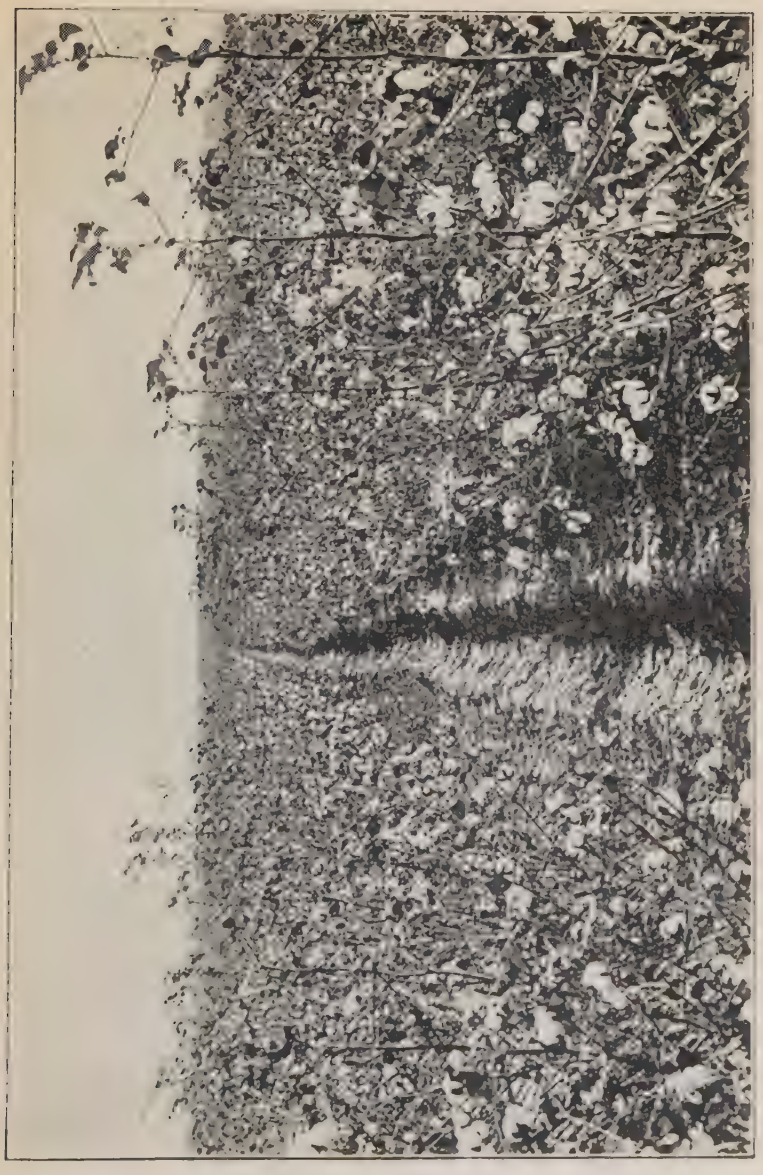
RESOURCES AND INDUSTRIES

Louisiana is mainly an agricultural state. Most of its wealth is due to its rich soil and its mild climate, both of which are favorable to the growth of crops. While almost every plant that grows in any other state can be raised successfully also in Louisiana, the four leading crops are cotton, sugar cane, corn and rice.

Cotton.—The cotton crop of the state is not so large as it used to be, on account of the damage done by the boll weevil, but it is still the most important single crop. Most of the cotton is raised north of Red River. The boll weevil invaded the state in 1908, and since then the raising of cotton has become more difficult. The farmers who used to grow little but cotton now find it a wise thing to plant a part of their land in other things, so that if the weevil ruins their cotton crop they will still have something to fall back on.

This has caused more and more land to be planted in corn, and the raising of live stock is also steadily gaining in importance. Corn grows well in all parts of the state. On the sugar plantations a crop of corn is usually grown along with velvet or soy-beans on lands which have yielded three successive crops of cane. This builds up the fertility of the soil and prepares it for the new planting of cane.

Sugar Cane.—Practically all the cane sugar produced in the United States comes from Louisiana. The parishes on both sides of the Mississippi and below the mouth of Red River and along Bayou Têche are often called the "sugar bowl," because in these are found the large sugar plantations and sugar mills. Cane for making sugar requires a rich alluvial soil with plenty of water, and must be grown where there is little danger from early frosts. The parishes



Cotton Field in Louisiana

along the lower Mississippi are best suited for this crop, but in the northern parishes much cane suitable for making syrup is grown.

Rice.—The growing of rice has been an important industry in Louisiana since the early days of the colony, but great changes in both the place and the methods of its production took place shortly after 1880. Before that date

A Louisiana Rice Field

the rice plantations were found only along the rivers and bayous. At a certain period in its growth the plant must be kept constantly in water, and it was the custom to make a gap or sluice-way in the levee in the spring when the water was high and to let the water run through this over the fields. This became dangerous, because it made many weak spots in the levees, and the state finally put an end to the practise. Thereafter the water had to be pumped over the levees by steam-power syphons, and the raising of rice along the rivers became more expensive.

Along in the early 'eighties it was discovered by some enterprising western people that the rich prairie lands of southwestern Louisiana were admirably adapted for the growing of rice. At that time this part of the state was thinly settled, and the prairies were given over largely to the grazing of inferior cattle. The lands were cheap, and water from the many bayous and coulees could be put on them at less expense than on the river lands behind the levees.

The advantages of this section were widely advertised, and the result was its rapid settlement by newcomers from Iowa and Nebraska. The towns of Lake Charles, Crowley and Jennings owe their growth largely to this movement. These western folk were already familiar with raising grain, and so had little trouble in learning how to manage the rice industry. About four-fifths of the rice in Louisiana is now raised on the southwestern prairies, and the rest is produced along the Mississippi River and Bayou Têche. As a rice producer Louisiana takes first place among the states of the Union.

In addition to these leading crops the state produces large quantities of sweet potatoes, oats, hay and peanuts. The lands in the vicinity of New Orleans are devoted largely to truck farming; that is, to the raising of such vegetables as cabbage, cauliflower, radishes, beets, onions, carrots, peas, beans and tomatoes. Owing to the mild winters two crops a year may be taken from the same land.

Fruits.—Tangipahoa Parish is the center of the strawberry industry. The sandy soils of the cut-over pine lands have proved especially well adapted for this crop, and although the area devoted to raising strawberries is limited, Louisiana in 1920 held fourth place among the states in the quantity of strawberries produced. It enjoys a special advantage in that the berries ripen very early and reach the market in time to insure the best prices of the season.

Along the Mississippi River below New Orleans oranges

and grapefruit are grown in quantities, and these fruits are grown to some extent also in other parts of Louisiana. The fig grows everywhere, and north Louisiana is well adapted for the growing of peaches. Louisiana is also one of the leading pecan-growing states.

Live Stock.—While the boll weevil was a cause of great loss to the farmers it caused them to improve their methods of production and to diversify their products. One result has been an increase in the importance of the live stock industry in the state. The census of 1920 showed that the value of live stock on the farms was three times what it had been in 1910. The mild climate permits grazing in the fields and pastures nearly the whole year around, and the raising of both dairy and beef cattle has steadily expanded. The cattle industry was for a time hampered by the fever tick, but this pest is being steadily driven out of the parishes by having the cattle regularly dipped in a preparation that kills the ticks.

Fish and Game.—Louisiana ranks third among the states in the value of its fisheries. Salt-water fish, shrimp and oysters are abundant along the gulf coast, but the rivers and bayous in the interior also supply enormous quantities of catfish and buffalo fish for the city markets and canneries. Louisiana leads all the states in the catch of fresh-water fish. It is also one of the few states where game remains plentiful. Deer and bear are still hunted in the forests and cane-brakes. Wild ducks and geese come in great flocks to spend the winters along the marshes of the gulf coast. The game is protected from too active hunters by wise game laws, administered by the State Conservation Commission. The state also maintains a game reservation, through the generosity of Edward A. McIlhenny, Charles W. Ward, Mrs. Russell Sage, and the Rockefeller Foundation. This provides a refuge for water fowl and other wild life, which without this protection would soon be killed off by ambitious hunters.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the chief source of Louisiana's wealth?
2. Why is cotton-growing less important than it once was?
3. What is taking its place?
4. What is the "sugar bowl" of the state?
5. Describe the development of the rice industry in the prairie section.
6. What are the most important fruits, and where are they grown?
7. Tell about the development of the live-stock industry.
8. How does Louisiana rank in the matter of fisheries?

Log Train Loaded and Ready to Go to the Sawmill

LV

RESOURCES AND INDUSTRIES *(Continued)*

Louisiana has splendid forests of pine along its uplands and a great wealth of cypress along its river valleys. There are also many varieties of hardwood available for timber. The center for the production of cypress lumber is Lutcher, while that for the yellow pine industry is Bogalusa. The latter town came into existence in 1906, and by 1920 had developed into a community of eight thousand inhabitants. It contains the largest lumber mill in the world. At one time when a pine tree was cut into boards a large part of it was burned as waste material because it could not be used as timber, but now there are two plants at Bogalusa which take this waste wood and manufacture it into wrapping paper. Lumber mills are to be found in all parts of the state, and Louisiana produces more lumber than any other state in the Union except Washington.

Minerals.—Three important mineral products are found in Louisiana. These are sulphur, rock salt and oil. In the production of sulphur Louisiana leads the whole world. In the parish of Calcasieu there are rich beds of almost pure sulphur lying over a thousand feet underground. The existence of this sulphur was known for a long time before it was mined. Just above the beds of sulphur there was a layer of quicksand about five hundred feet thick, and this prevented the opening of a regular mining shaft in order to reach the mineral, because as soon as the quicksand was reached the opening would cave in and begin to fill. A way was finally invented, however, to bring the sulphur up through the quicksand. Large pipes are now driven down till they reach the bed of sulphur. Steam at a very high temperature is then sent down through these pipes

to melt the sulphur, and it is then pumped up through other pipes and on cooling becomes solid again and ready for shipment.

Louisiana ranks third in the output of rock salt. The mines on Avery Island supply pure salt crystals, which are brought up from a depth of about two thousand feet.

There are two distinct oil fields in the state. The largest and most important lies in the northwest corner of the state in Caddo, Red River, De Soto and Claiborne Parishes. The other field lies far to the south, and has been most productive around Vinton, Jennings and Anse La Butte. The oil industry in Caddo Parish has made Shreveport the second largest city in the state. The refining of crude oil into gasoline, kerosene, benzine, naphtha and many other products, has become an important industry in the state. There are large refineries on the Mississippi at Baton Rouge and at Destrehan just above New Orleans, from which oil products are shipped to all parts of the world. Oil is carried to the refineries by pipe-lines running from northwest Louisiana and from Oklahoma, and passing under the Mississippi River. The oil parishes of northwest Louisiana also produce much natural gas.

The supply of these minerals will some day be exhausted, and then the people engaged in extracting these products from the earth will have to seek other fields of activity. The lumber resources are also in danger of exhaustion, but in this case something can be done to replace the timber that has been taken from the land. Trees can be made to grow to replace those that have been cut away, and the state and Federal governments are encouraging efforts in this direction.

Reclamation.—In many of the Western States farming is difficult because the lands are too dry. There is not sufficient rainfall for the crops and water has to be brought to the fields by artificial methods. Louisiana has no troubles of this sort. The rainfall is heavy, and vegetation of all

sorts is luxuriant. But there are certain areas in the state which get too much water, and they can not be cultivated until the water is drained off. In other words, in parts of the state the problem is to get water off the land just as in parts of the West the problem is to get it on. The work of reclaiming the wet lands has little more than begun, but wherever it has been done the lands have proved to be exceedingly fertile. As the population of the state grows and the demand for farm lands increases the drainage of the wet lands will become more profitable, and the work will be greatly extended.

Transportation.—Louisiana has a greater network of waterways than any other state in the Union. The total length of its navigable streams is nearly 4,800 miles. The mighty Mississippi, of which we have read so much in preceding chapters, runs through the state or along its borders for 560 miles and makes it possible to journey by water into the heart of the continent and to reach the principal cities of the Middle West.

But the rivers are no longer the highways for travel that they once were. For many years before and after the Civil War magnificent packets ran on the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers as far north as St. Louis and Cincinnati, and the river steamboat was at the height of its glory about 1885. In later years travel by river slowly declined, because more railways were being built, and a journey by rail could be made more quickly than one by water. There are still steamboats on the rivers of Louisiana, but they are few and insignificant as compared with those of forty years ago.

At the close of the Civil War the few short lines of railway in the state were almost in ruins. By 1880, however, the building of new lines was proceeding rapidly. The small lines of less than a hundred miles in length were also being linked together to form the great systems that serve the state to-day. The few hundred miles of

1860 have been increased until in 1924 there were over five thousand miles of track in the state. In 1860 the longest ride one could take on a train out of New Orleans was to a point near Morgan City. Now one can go from New Orleans to San Francisco, Chicago, or New York without having to change cars.

Good Roads.—The increasing use of the automobile has created a demand all over the country for good roads. In Louisiana road building and maintenance present some difficulty because there is little hard material available in most places for the construction of highways, and it has to be brought long distances. The heavy rainfall and difficulty in obtaining sufficient drainage also add to the troubles of keeping the roads in repair. In spite of these obstacles, however, the state has undertaken an extensive program of road building, and has been aided in this work by the Federal government. Within the two years 1918-1920 the parishes had borrowed more than $14,000,000 for the construction of hard-surfaced roads, and a system of nearly two thousand miles of good roads had been planned under the direction of the State Highway Department. By 1922 over half the roads included in these plans had already been built.

The building of good roads means much for the future prosperity of the state. An improved road enables the farmer to take his products to market quickly and at low cost, and by making travel easier it removes much of the loneliness of farm life and tends to check the movement of the country folk to the cities. In Louisiana this is very important, because the future of the state depends on the development of its agricultural resources.

The State's Metropolis.—New Orleans, the chief city of the state, is also the largest city in the South, and it is the second largest port in the United States, ranking next to New York in the value and volume of its foreign trade. The opening of the Panama Canal increased the importance

of the port for trade with South America and the Orient. The facilities at New Orleans for loading and unloading ships are among the best in the country. Along the river front there are seven miles of steel-covered sheds for freight, besides grain elevators and the largest cotton warehouse in the world.

In 1923 a new canal was opened which unites the waters of the Mississippi River with those of Lake Pontchartrain. This created a new route for ships from the city to the gulf and makes it possible for them to save a whole day in going to and from the port by avoiding the bends and currents of the river.

QUESTIONS

1. How does Louisiana rank as a producer of lumber?
2. What are the chief kinds of lumber produced?
3. Tell about the sulphur mines in Calcasieu Parish.
4. What parts of the state produce oil? Where are the large oil refineries located?
5. What important industry is found on Avery's Island?
6. What can you say about the reclamation of the wet lands?
7. Tell what you can about the waterways of Louisiana.
8. Compare present railways in the state with those of 1860.
9. Show what Louisiana is doing to improve its highways.

Paper Mill at Bogalusa

LVI

EDUCATION IN LOUISIANA

You will recall the story of the coming of the Ursulines to Louisiana and of their founding the first school for girls. You will remember, too, that Bienville tried to have a similar school established for boys. The French government refused to do this, however, because it thought that the colony at that time was not important enough for such an institution. How most of the boys in that early period got an education we do not know, but some of the more fortunate ones were sent to France for their schooling.

When the Spanish governors came to Louisiana many years later they showed a great interest in the establishment of schools, but there was a selfish purpose behind their actions. They were anxious to have all the children placed in school so that they could be taught Spanish, but the French-speaking parents objected to this so strongly that many of the teachers who began teaching Spanish ended by teaching French.

Early Academies.—Under both French and Spanish rule education in Louisiana was under the direction of religious orders, but soon after Louisiana was admitted to the Union a number of academies were established and supported by the state. In fact, the legislature at first authorized more academies than it was able to provide for properly, and most of them went out of existence in a short time. Some of these academies called themselves "colleges," but to-day few of them would rank even as high schools. The school buildings were usually frame structures fitted with rough pine-board benches and crude home-made desks, and sometimes with no desks at all. There were no blackboards, and noisy slates took the place of writing tablets. The school terms were short, and few subjects were taught.

The legislature at its session in 1840-41 established about twenty of these "colleges" and academies and provided a small sum of money for each. A few years before this some effort had been made to set up "free schools" in addition to the academies, but too little money was provided to make them a success.

Public School System.—The present system of free public schools had its beginning when the new state constitution was adopted in 1845 and Alexander Dimitry became the first Superintendent of Education. After that year public schools in all parts of the state took the place of the few academies which had previously been provided. The Civil War badly upset the school system, and the carpet-bag legislature caused still more trouble by trying to force white and negro children to attend the same schools. Much of the school money in reconstruction days went into the pockets of corrupt officials.

Soon after the carpet-bag government was overthrown a special tax was imposed for the support of schools. The educational system was improved, but the people were then too poor to maintain as good schools as were to be found in states which had not suffered from the ravages of the war. The colored children also needed their separate schools, and this added to the burden.

As the years passed these difficulties were gradually overcome. The school system has steadily improved. The little one-room schoolhouse at the cross roads has given way to the consolidated rural school, with a convenient sanitary building, modern desks and other equipment, an improved course of study, a longer school term, and teachers trained for special grades or branches in place of a single teacher who had to teach everything and everybody.

Public sentiment in favor of universal education finally became so strong that in 1916 the legislature passed a law requiring every child between the ages of seven and fourteen to attend school for not less than one hundred forty

days in each year. So far it has not been possible to enforce this law to the letter, but the number of children who stay away from school is being steadily reduced. In 1918 the constitution of the state was amended so that the funds for the support of education in the state were more than doubled.

John McDonogh.—No story of the public schools of Louisiana would be complete without a sketch of one of their great benefactors, John McDonogh. He was born in Baltimore and came to New Orleans as a young man to engage in the commission and shipping business. He was very successful and became rich, investing much of his wealth in land. For a time he lived in a handsome home in the French quarter of New Orleans and entertained his friends on a lavish scale. Then one day he abandoned his town house and moved to his plantation across the river. He seemed after this to desire to shun the society of his fellow citizens. He lived a simple life, and was sometimes accused of being a miser. This accusation was unjust, however, for we now know that at this time he was educating a number of orphan children, and that he always paid his slaves for any extra work which he had them to do. When his negroes in this way earned enough to buy their freedom he sent them back to Africa at his own expense, because he did not believe that the whites and blacks could live peacefully together after the negroes were free. When McDonogh died in 1850 the people discovered that his saving habits had been for their benefit. He left nearly all his fortune to be divided equally between New Orleans and Baltimore and to be employed in the establishment of free schools for the education of all children. In New Orleans nearly thirty school buildings have been erected with this fund, and each one bears the name of McDonogh.

Paul Tulane.—In addition to the academies which the state set up between 1812 and 1845, there was established in 1834 the Medical College of Louisiana. When the school

system was improved in 1847 it was decided to enlarge the Medical College into the University of Louisiana. This was done, but the institution was not well supported by the legislature. During the war it closed its doors, and during the reconstruction period the carpet-bag government failed to provide properly for it because of its refusal to admit negroes. In 1881 a great benefactor of the University of Louisiana appeared in the person of Paul Tulane. He had once been a wealthy merchant in New Orleans, where he had spent fifty years of his life, but at the time he was living in Princeton, New Jersey. This gift was followed by others till over a million dollars had been received. The legislature allowed the institution to receive these gifts on condition that it give up its claim on the state for support, and in 1884 the name was changed to the Tulane University of Louisiana.

Two years later a woman's department of Tulane University was established through the generosity of Mrs. Josephine Louise Newcomb, the widow of Warren Newcomb, a former merchant of New Orleans. In memory of the founder's daughter this institution was named the H. Sophie Newcomb Memorial College.

The State University.—In 1860 the state founded its second large institution, known as the Louisiana State Seminary, at Pineville, near Alexandria. William Tecumseh Sherman, later to become a famous Union leader in the Civil War, was its first president. The seminary closed during the war and when Louisiana seceded Sherman resigned to enter the Union army, while most of the students and faculty entered the army of the Confederacy. After the war the seminary reopened, and when its buildings at Pineville burned down the institution was removed to Baton Rouge. During the reconstruction period at one time it received no money from the legislature because of its refusal to admit negro students, but its president, David F. Boyd, managed to keep it in operation without state

aid. In 1870 the name of the institution was changed to Louisiana State University. The United States government later gave it the site of the old army garrison at Baton Rouge for a new campus, and the place where the soldiers of France, Great Britain, Spain, the United States, and the Confederacy had once encamped then became the seat of an institution of learning.

In 1920 the legislature provided funds for a Greater University, with larger grounds and more modern buildings on the river about two miles below the state capitol. In addition to the University the state maintains a normal school at Natchitoches and technical schools at Ruston and Lafayette. It also supports the Southern University at Scotland for the industrial training of colored youth.

The churches also have developed their institutions for the higher education of Louisiana youth. Loyola University in New Orleans is maintained by the Roman Catholic Church; Louisiana College at Pineville by the Baptist Church, and Centenary College at Shreveport by the Methodist Church. All these institutions are needed to help the state in providing the best possible advantages for the training of its future citizens.

QUESTIONS

1. What was the first school established in Louisiana?
2. Why was no similar school established for boys?
3. Why were the Spanish governors especially interested in schools?
4. Describe the early academies.
5. When did the public school system begin?
6. Describe its progress in recent years.
7. Tell about the gift of John McDonogh.
8. Show how the old University of Louisiana became the Tulane University.
9. Show how the old State Seminary developed into the State University.
10. What other institutions are supported by the state?

LVII

LITERATURE IN LOUISIANA

Louisiana is the only American state that has developed a literature in two languages. For nearly half a century after Louisiana was acquired by the United States the English language made little progress in displacing French among the Creoles, and even to-day in some sections of the state French is still the mother tongue of a majority of the people. For many years the laws of the state were published in both French and English, and it was even necessary at one time to have an interpreter in the legislature.

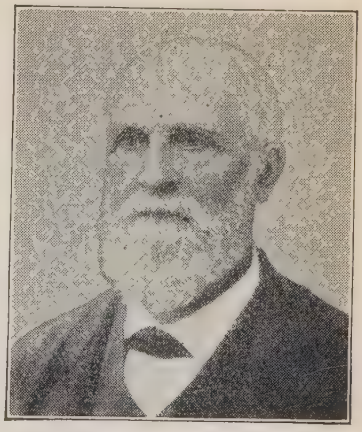
In many wealthy Creole families it was a custom to send the sons to France for their education, and this resulted in excellent French being spoken in Louisiana, and also served to direct the attention of members of the best families toward literature. Indeed, some of the best writers in Louisiana before the Civil War could express themselves equally well in English or in French.

Julien Poydras.—The early Creole writers at first showed a strong preference for poetry. The earliest of these to make a serious poetic effort was Julien Poydras. He was not a gifted poet, though he wrote a long poem in 1779 celebrating the capture of Baton Rouge by Galvez, and also composed several shorter poems. But Poydras is best known in Louisiana as a successful planter and merchant and a most charitable and public-spirited citizen, and it is this phase of his career, rather than his literary work, that deserves most attention.

Poydras landed in New Orleans about the time that Spain took possession of Louisiana. He was a poor young man, and started his life in the new country as a peddler, selling

small articles to the planters living along the river. In this way he soon saved enough to buy a plantation in Pointe Coupée Parish. Here he carried on trade up and down the river between New Orleans and St. Louis, and grew wealthy by exchanging manufactured articles for flour, sugar, indigo, hides and other country goods.

He became a large landowner, with a number of plantations, large herds of cattle, and he owned over a thousand slaves. We have already seen that he represented Orleans Territory in Congress at Washington and presided over the convention that drew up the first constitution for the state.



Alfred Mercier

Julien Poydras was very charitable with his money. He founded an orphan asylum and gave a large sum to the Charity Hospital in New Orleans. To the parishes of Pointe Coupée and West Baton Rouge he gave thirty thousand dollars each for a most unusual purpose. The interest on the money each year was to be given to poor young girls who had recently married to help them get a good start in their new homes. In his will Poydras asked that his slaves be emancipated twenty-five years after his death, but this request was not carried out.

Before the Civil War much French poetry was published in Louisiana. The most noted of the Creole poets was Dr. Alfred Mercier. He also wrote a number of French novels, and published much of his work in magazines in France.

Audubon.—Of the persons born in Louisiana who achieved fame in literature, art or science, John James Audubon

easily stands first. Audubon's father was a French naval officer who had acquired a plantation in Louisiana near New Orleans, and it was on this plantation that John James Audubon was born. He was taken to France to be educated, and as he had early shown a talent for drawing birds his father placed him under a famous French painter. But Audubon did not like to work in a crowded studio in a city; he wanted to be out-of-doors with the trees, flowers and birds. His father, therefore, sent him to a farm near Philadelphia, where he could study nature to his heart's content, and it was not long before his room resembled a museum, so filled was it with stuffed animals and birds.

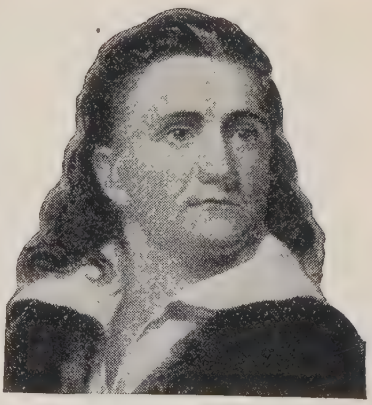
After his marriage to Lucy Blakewell, the daughter of a neighbor, Audubon took a position with a business house in New York, but he could not become interested in business and soon withdrew from the firm and moved to Kentucky. There he tried business again, only to fail. He then returned to Louisiana and went into business with his brother-in-law, only to fail again. He was not interested in his business but spent all the time he could in the woods, painting birds. Some of the wilder ones he studied through a telescope, and occasionally he had to kill a rare specimen in order to get a chance to paint it. His drawings were exact and life-like to the smallest detail.

In carrying on this work he made extensive trips along the Mississippi and Ohio Rivers and into the adjoining country, often accompanied by his son Victor.

Of course, when leading such a life he could make no money, and all his friends thought that he was crazy. His wife alone stood loyally by him and encouraged him. She went to work herself as a governess in New Orleans in order to educate their children. Later Audubon and his wife taught school in Bayou Sara.

After many years of hard struggle Audubon gathered his collection of bird pictures and worked his way to Philadelphia, leaving his family at Bayou Sara. While in Phil-

adelphia he met with another misfortune. A collection of his pictures, representing three years of work, was destroyed in a single night by rats, but he bravely went to work to replace them. In order to earn his living he gave music and dancing lessons and painted a few portraits at such times as he could spare from his work with his birds.



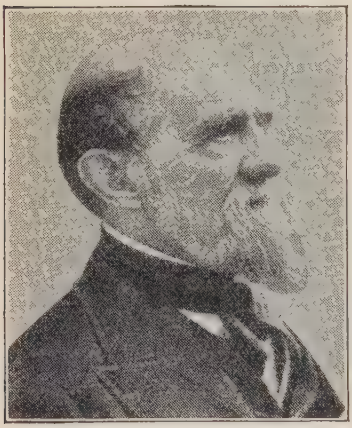
John James Audubon

In Philadelphia Audubon's pictures attracted the attention of a French visitor, Prince Canino, a nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, who urged him to publish his work. Audubon went to England to see what could be done, and there his pictures at once attracted the attention of many prominent scientists and literary men. He found, though, that it would cost one hundred thousand dollars to publish them, and he was almost penniless. It was necessary to get subscribers for the work at one thousand dollars a copy, but he undertook to get them. The Kings of England and France headed the list, but while Audubon was seeking subscribers in London and Paris he had also to paint and peddle pictures in order to make his living. Finally, however, his great work, entitled *The Birds of America,* consisting of four hundred thirty-five plates in four massive volumes, began to come from the press.

It took twelve years to finish the engraving and printing. Europe had already recognized his genius, and honors were poured upon him. Many learned societies made him an honorary member, and kings and princes showered their attentions upon one of the world's greatest naturalists.

His days of hardship were now over. He returned to America and bought a home near New York City, and devoted the rest of his life to writing and pursuing his favorite studies.

Historians.—Taking high rank among the literary men of Louisiana are its historians. Judge François Xavier Martin paved the way for his successors with his *History of Louisiana,* which was published in 1827, and is still a useful work. In recognition of his scholarship Harvard University honored him with the degree of Doctor of Laws in 1841. The foremost historian of Louisiana was Charles Étienne Gayarré, a grandson of Étienne de Boré. Gayarré had been a successful lawyer and judge and was elected to the United States Senate at the age of thirty. A severe illness, however, caused him to give up his place in the Senate and to go to France in search of health. There he was able to examine the documents dealing with the French settlement of Louisiana, and the outcome was his splendid work in four volumes, one of the best state histories ever written.



Charles Étienne Gayarré

Another well known writer on the history of Louisiana is Miss Grace King, who has written a life of Bienville, and interesting books on New Orleans and its old Creole families. Alcée Fortier also contributed some valuable studies in Louisiana history.

Among the Louisiana novelists George W. Cable is best known. Cable was born in New Orleans and lived there

till forty years of age, when he removed to Massachusetts. The *Grandissimes,* one of his best known novels, was written in New Orleans before his departure, as was also a book of historical sketches entitled *Old Creole Days.* While Cable is a gifted writer his books have been criticized by Louisianians because they do not present true pictures of Creole life. Next to Cable among the novelists comes Mrs. Ruth McEnery Stuart, who became famous for her stories in negro dialect.

Another widely-read story-writer was Lafcadio Hearn. Though he wrote most of his stories in Japan and about the Japanese, he spent part of his early life in New Orleans as a newspaper writer, and it was there that he first gained fame as an author, and there, too, he got the plot for *Chita,* one of his best known stories.

In any description of Louisiana writers there should be included one who won fame as a writer of music. This was Louis Moreau Gottschalk. He was both an accomplished pianist and a composer, and is often referred to as the first American musician to gain recognition from the great masters of the Old World. Many of his compositions show the influence of the songs and dances of the negroes of Louisiana and the West Indies.

Before the Civil War there was a magazine published at New Orleans entitled *De Bow's Review.* It was devoted mainly to the discussion of agricultural and commercial questions affecting the South and it exerted a wide influence at the time throughout the Southern States. The files of this magazine are to-day a storehouse of useful information on conditions in the Old South. Its editor, James D. B. De Bow, was also the author of a number of books dealing with southern trade and industry.

Thus we see that the progress of Louisiana during the past hundred years has not been confined to material things. Along with the development of its natural resources and

its increase in wealth, it has not neglected literature or the arts, which are the true measures of a people's civilization.

QUESTIONS

1. How does Louisiana occupy a unique place in literature?
2. Tell the story of Julien Poydras.
3. Who was Doctor Alfred Mercier?
4. Sketch the main events in the life of Audubon.
5. Who were the leading Louisiana historians?
6. Tell about the work of Gayarré.
7. Name two well known Louisiana novelists.
8. Who were Louis Moreau Gottschalk? Lafcadio Hearn?
9. What was *De Bow's Review?*

Famous Oak in Audubon Park, New Orleans

LVIII

THE STORY ENDS

When the year 1914 began the people of Louisiana were as prosperous and contented as they had ever been at any time in their history. There had been floods in the two preceding years, but most of the damage from these had been repaired. Crops were fair, business was good, and the people were going about their daily tasks and never dreaming that the world was on the verge of a great calamity. But trouble had long been brewing across the Atlantic, and in midsummer of this year war broke out in Europe. All the leading countries in that part of the world were soon drawn into the struggle. Germany and Austria were on one side, and were later joined by Bulgaria and Turkey. On the other, or Allied, side were France, Russia, Great Britain and Belgium. Later most of the civilized countries of the world joined with the Allies against the Germans.

America Desires to be Neutral.—The United States for a time tried to remain neutral, though from the beginning of the conflict a majority of the American people desired to see the Allies win, because they were fighting for the freedom of Europe and against the despotic rule typified by the German Kaiser.

Germany's methods of warfare also made her many enemies in this country. The sinking of the British passenger steamer *Lusitania* by a German submarine led to the death of over a hundred Americans, and nearly a thousand other persons, including many women and children. This brutal deed caused a feeling of horror to run through the American people, and from that time on there was a growing desire on their part for the United States

to do its share in bringing to account a nation that could commit such crimes.

In the meantime the German government was guilty of many high-handed acts against the United States, although the two countries were supposed to be at peace. German agents destroyed with fire or explosives factories that were making materials to sell to the Allies, as these concerns had a perfect right to do, and thereby brought death and injury to American workmen. Other agents tried to involve us in a war with Mexico and Japan. Finally, the German government announced a policy of ruthless submarine warfare on ships of neutral nations, and its attacks on American vessels on the high seas were more than a self-respecting nation like ours could endure. Accordingly, on April 6, 1917, Congress declared war.

Louisiana's Contribution.—The people of Louisiana welcomed the declaration of war with patriotic fervor. A training camp, or cantonment, designated as Camp Beauregard, was established by the government at Alexandria. Another camp for the training of aviators was established at Lake Charles. Shipyards to build ships to replace those sunk by submarines were established at Madisonville and Slidell. Under the selective draft act 392,316 young men from Louisiana registered for service, and 80,834 were enrolled in the army. A large number of these took part in the fighting in France. Among the high officers rendering distinguished service in the fighting overseas was a Louisianian, General John A. LeJeune, of the Marine Corps.

To help win the war the people who stayed at home gladly made sacrifices, just as their parents and grandparents did during the Civil War, though fortunately this time the sacrifices involved no hardships such as were felt when the Confederacy was blockaded. The subscriptions to the big war loans in Louisiana reached a total of $154,071,000, and there were also liberal contributions to the Red Cross and other war agencies. The women knitted

sweaters, mufflers, mitts and socks, and made bandages for the wounded, and everybody observed "wheatless days" and "meatless days" each week, so that food could be spared to ship to our Allies overseas.

America's entry into the war turned the scales in favor of the Allies, and on November 11, 1918, Germany signed an armistice, and the fighting ceased. The four years' struggle was a terrible calamity to the civilization of the white race. You will remember that after the Civil War ended there was still trouble for many years in Louisiana and the other Southern States. The same has proved true of Europe, and as this is written, five years after the armistice, there is still much strife and hatred between the nations that once were fighting. It takes a long time for the wounds of war to heal, and we may well be thankful that our own country came through the struggle with so little suffering and injury.

Conclusion.—We now come to what at this time is the end of the story of Louisiana. We have seen how the state had its beginnings in the dreams of La Salle, who explored the mighty Mississippi to its mouth and saw how the vast area of rich soil along its valley could some day be made to support a multitude of people. We have seen, too, how from the tiny settlement, planted on the gulf coast by Iberville and Bienville after their memorable voyage of 1699, Louisiana has grown into a great and prosperous state of nearly two million people.

What was once a wilderness of rank woods, swamps and turbulent muddy streams, inhabited by a few roving red men, has now given way to a great stretch of farms and plantations, with thriving towns linked together with a network of railways and improved public highways. Instead of the scattered patches of puny Indian corn which the early explorers found, there are now immense fields of cotton, cane, rice, corn and other important crops.

The deer and bear, which once supplied the natives with

meat, have almost disappeared, and their place has been taken by great droves of cattle of improved breeds. Orange groves, strawberry fields, and truck gardens bear witness to the balmy climate and the fertile soil. Rice, sugar and lumber mills, and oil wells and refineries are adding to the wealth of the state. Wet lands have been drained and made fit for agriculture, and the unruly Mississippi has been harnessed between levees that are being continually strengthened.

But this progress has not been confined merely to the increase of material wealth. Medical science has made Louisiana a healthier place to live in. Tropical fevers have long ago been banished. Schools are rapidly increasing, and their work is improving. The doors of the colleges are open to all who will enter. Truly, Louisianians of the present generation are blessed with opportunities and with comforts of which their ancestors who laid the foundations of the state never even dreamed. And now for the countless benefits which they have received as a result of the toil and sacrifice of those who have gone before them, they have incurred a great debt which they must discharge to the best of their ability for the benefit of those who come after them.

QUESTIONS

1. Why is the year 1914 so important in history?
2. What was the attitude of Americans at first toward the World War?
3. Why did the Americans turn more and more against Germany?
4. What finally brought the United States into the struggle?
5. Tell about Louisiana's part in the struggle.
6. What general from Louisiana rendered distinguished service overseas?
7. What was the outcome of the war?
8. Give a summary of the most important steps in the progress of Louisiana since 1776.

GOVERNORS OF LOUISIANA

FRENCH PERIOD

Pierre le Moyne, Sieur d'Iberville..... 1699
Sieur de Sauvole (died in office).....1699-1701
Jean Baptiste le Moyne, Sieur de Bienville.....1701-1713
Antoine de la Mothe Cadillac.....1713-1716
Jean Baptiste le Moyne, Sieur de Bienville (acting) 1716-1717
De l'Epinay 1717-1718
Jean Baptiste le Moyne, Sieur de Bienville.....1718-1724
Pierre Dugue, Sieur de Boisbriant (acting)....1724-1725
Périer 1725-1733
Jean Baptiste le Moyne, Sieur de Bienville.....1733-1743
Pierre Rigaud, Marquis de Vaudreuil.....1743-1753
Louis Billouart, Chevalier de Kerlérec.....1753-1763
D'Abbadie (designated as director; died in office).1763-1765
Charles Philippe Aubry (acting).....1765-1769

SPANISH PERIOD

Antonio de Ulloa (did not assume full power)...1766-1768
Alexandro O'Reilly (Captain-General and Governor) 1769
Luis de Unzaga 1769-1777
Bernardo de Galvez.....1777-1785
Estevan Miro 1785-1791
François Louis Hector, Baron de Carondelet....1791-1797
Gayoso de Lemos (died in office).....1797-1799
Francisco Bouligny (acting)..... 1799
Sebastian, Marquis de Casa Calvo.....1799-1801
Juan Manuel de Salcedo.....1801-1803

PERIOD OF TRANSFER

Pierre Clément de Laussat, November 20-December 30 1803

TERRITORIAL PERIOD

William Charles Cole Claiborne.....1803-1812

STATE PERIOD

William Charles Cole Claiborne.....1812-1816
Jacques Philippe Villeré.....1816-1820
Thomas Bolling Robertson (resigned).....1820-1824
Henry Schuyler Thibodeaux (successor as President of the Senate)..... 1824
Henry S. Johnson 1824-1828
Pierre Derbigny (died in office).....1828-1829
Armand Beauvais (successor as President of the Senate) 1829-1830
Jacques Dupré (successor as President of the Senate) 1830-1831
André Bienvenu Roman.....1831-1835
Edward Douglas White.....1835-1839
André Bienvenu Roman.....1839-1843
Alexandre Mouton 1843-1846
Isaac Johnson 1846-1850
Joseph Marshall Walker 1850-1853
Paul Octave Hébert 1853-1856
Robert Charles Wickliffe.....1856-1860
Thomas Overton Moore 1860-1864
George F. Shepley (appointed Military Governor within Union lines) 1862-1864
Henry Watkins Allen (elected Governor within Confederate lines) 1864-1865
Michael Hahn (elected within Union lines; resigned) 1864-1865
James Madison Wells (successor as Lieutenant Governor) 1865-1867
Benjamin Franklin Flanders (appointed by military authority) 1867-1868
Joshua Baker (appointed by military authority) . 1868
Henry C. Warmoth.....1868-1872

P. B. S. Pinchback (acting) 1872-1873
John McEnery (elected, but ruled out) 1873
William Pitt Kellogg (Governor *de facto*) 1873-1877
Francis Tillou Nicholls 1877-1880
Louis Alfred Wiltz (died in office) 1880-1881
Samuel Douglas McEnery (successor as Lieutenant Governor) 1881-1884
Samuel Douglas McEnery 1884-1888
Francis Tillou Nicholls 1888-1892
Murphy J. Foster 1892-1900
William Wright Heard 1900-1904
Newton Crain Blanchard 1904-1908
Jared Young Sanders 1908-1912
Luther Egbert Hall 1912-1916
Ruffin G. Pleasant 1916-1920
John M. Parker 1920-1924
Henry L. Fuqua 1924-

THE END

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